

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

M A Y, 1798.

T. Lucretii Cari de Rerum Naturâ Libros sex, ad Exemplarium MSS. Fidem recensitos, longe emendatiores reddidit, Commentariis perpetuis illustravit, Indicibus instruxit, et cum Animadversionibus Ricardi Bentleyi, non ante vulgatis, aliorum subinde miscuit Gilbertus Wakefield, A. B. Collegii Jesu apud Cantabrigienses olim Socius. Londini, Impensis Editoris, Typis A. Hamilton. 3 Vols. 4to. On superfine Imperial Paper, 21l. Small Paper, 5l. 5s. Boards. Cuthell. 1796—7.

THE author, of whom Mr. Wakefield has here presented an edition to the public, holds a distinguished rank among the Roman poets; and, even if he were not interesting on his own account, he would deserve our peculiar regard, as the master of Virgil. It is unfortunate for the more ancient Latin writers, that, from the many and great changes which took place in their language, their works soon became difficult, or at least unpleasant, to the reader; and their fame was eclipsed by new authors, who in their turn yielded the palm to their successors. After the Ciceronian and Augustan ages, most of the writers preceding those periods were overwhelmed in ungrateful oblivion, and were rarely quoted but by antiquaries, grammarians, and etymologists. If the productions of Ennius and Lucilius, and of all the poets of the intermediate times, had been fortunately preserved to this day, we should not read them perhaps with that admiration which Martial ridicules in Chrestillus*; but we should pay them that respect which is due to the beginners of arts and sciences, more justly due in general than to improvers, though these usually obtain the greater share of the reward. If the earlier writers of a nation are deficient in art, they are for the most part superior in simplicity, and frequently in force: their successors, while they perpetually filed and polished their materials, often rendered them weak and delicate. At any rate, a comparison of the authors of different ages would afford a liberal and rational

* Attonitusque legis, terrâ frugiferâ,
Accius et quidquid Pacuviusque vomunt. xi. 91.

pleasure to the curious reader, as unfolding the history of the human mind.

Lucretius wrote his poem on the Universe, in an age when the Latin poetry had not reached that perfection which it ultimately attained, but was rapidly advancing toward it. His genius led him to philosophical speculations; and he fixed upon Epicurus for his guide. Though he extols his master with extravagant commendations, as it seems to have been the custom of the Epicureans * more than of any other sect, he took the liberty of differing from him in a material point of practice. Epicurus despised all the liberal arts and all the elegances of composition; and some of his disciples even boasted that his writings were *οικεια δυναμει γεγραμμενα, και απα-
ραβητα*†, written by his own mother wit, and unaided by quotation or authority. Lucretius, on the contrary, quotes many authorities, and displays his acquaintance with the learning of his time. Of his extensive reading in the Greek language the poem itself affords abundant proof.

Though it might be wished that Lucretius had espoused a more tenable or instructive cause, than the Epicurean doctrines, that there is no providence, nothing after death, but that all things are produced and destroyed by the fortuitous motion of his atoms or *primordia*, &c. he intermixes so much truth, instruction, and poetry, in delivering and defending the principles of his sect, that every Latin scholar will readily bestow an attentive perusal on his work, and be thankful to any critic who contributes to correct the text of such an author, and explain his sense. It is now our duty to take a survey of the labours of our countryman, by whom this task has been undertaken.

The first volume begins with a dedication to Mr. Fox, partly in prose, partly in ninety-four elegiac verses; after which we meet with an address to the reader, containing an account of the motives and plan of the publication. The first edition, said to have been printed at Brescia, without a date of the year, Mr. Wakefield has not seen. The second, commonly reputed the first, printed at Verona in 1486, was lent to him by Mr. Cracherode. That which was prepared by John Baptist Pius, and printed at Bologna in 1511, was usefully employed by our commentator; and the Juntine and Aldine impressions, of 1512 and 1515, were also examined. Of Gifanius he speaks in such terms, that it is difficult to know whether he really inspected the edition superintended by that critic. He vehemently blames Lambinus for intruding his own conjectures into the text, and neglecting the authority of MSS.; he even suspects him sometimes of falsely alleging their testimony. But we see no reason, after making due allowance for haste

* Torquatus, in Cic. de Fin. i. 21. † Diog. Laërt. vii. 181.

and human infirmity, to suspect either Lambinus or Gifanius of producing readings, as from their MSS. which never were there. Gifanius, in his *Collectanea*, states various readings from written copies of other authors, which have been found in MSS. by later critics: why, then, should we suppose him to have been unfaithful with regard to Lucretius?

Of Creech, as an editor of Lucretius, Mr. Wakefield speaks with contempt, representing his reputation as far superior to his merits. With respect to Havercamp's edition, his judgment nearly agrees with that of Ernesti, which he transcribes, and which we shall transcribe from him.

'Omnino hoc opus suum peritioribus non valde probavit Havercampus. Inter omnes editores principatus debetur Lambino et Creechio; huic ad intelligendum maxime, illi etiam ad criticam rationem. Sed, qui has res recte tractare possit, is, si suscipere novam editionem velit *αυγίστα* eā, quæ hodie peritis probatur, et cujus exempla recentioris temporis habemus, magnam laudem parare sibi possit. Sed absit usitata nostris temporibus festinatio, et lucri cupido.' Vol. i. p. vii.

The peculiar aids which have been employed for this edition are, 1. A copy of Le-Fevre's Lucretius, once in the possession of Bentley, and by him enriched with notes, which are now for the first time made public: 2. A manuscript, formerly Dr. Askew's, now belonging to the public library at Cambridge: 3, 4, 5. Three MSS. in the British Museum; the first on parchment, of the smallest size, of the 15th century; the second on paper, of the same age, ending with the 232d verse of the sixth book; the third, of a still later date, not safely to be trusted, when it dissents from the rest: 6. A MS. furnished by Mr. Edward Poore, written by a very modern hand from a MS. 7. A MS. at Vienna, of the 15th century, the various readings of which were published by F. C. Alter, at the end of his edition of Lucretius, Vienna, 1787: 8. Another, containing fragments of the 2d, 3d, and 6th books, written, as Mr. Alter judges, near the beginning of the 14th century.

It has been Mr. Wakefield's endeavour, as he tells us himself, to exhibit the text with the true Lucretian orthography, that its '*αρχαϊσμός* nitor, et flos ferrugineus veneranda vetustatis,' might be carefully preserved. In the sequel of our review, whenever we quote the poem, we shall closely follow this orthography. In the mean time, that we may not tire our readers with an enumeration of such minute particulars, we shall only mention some of those which occur in the first book. The accusative plural is terminated in *eis*; we find *ventei*, in the plural; the prepositions (e. g. in *efficere*), are not melted into the verb with which they are compounded; *fruns*

and *fun*s are written for *frons* and *fons*, *Acheruntis* for *Acherontis*; *quæquomque* for *quæcunque*, *hiis* for *his*, &c.

The editor professes also to have studiously collected all the passages in which Virgil has imitated Lucretius, and to have compared them with the original. The fruit of this diligence has been, he says, the cure of many corruptions in Virgil, which wore the appearance of soundness. As few authors have been more licentiously treated, on pretence of emendation, than Lucretius, Mr. Wakefield professes to have followed the authority of MSS. as far as the sense and Latinity would permit; and in his commentaries he has endeavoured so to adjust his observations, that they may not be despised by the learned, and that they may be understood by learners with profit; in a word, that he may cure both the satiety and the ignorance of his readers.

He inquires, near the close of his address, whether Lucretius left any monuments of his genius behind him, except this poem, as he seems to promise, lib. v. 147—158. Servius, he thinks, found the example of Ixion in his copy of Lucretius, among the fabulous punishments of the dead. Varro, in his treatise on the Latin language, quotes *the beginning of the one-and-twenty books of Lucretius*; but perhaps the name is here corrupted.

On account of the enormous expenses attending the publication of such a work, the first volume appeared by itself, as a precursor, to explore the public opinion. The edition, as Mr. Wakefield justly boasts, is decorated with all typographical luxury, to recommend it to those who are fond of splendid books. We hope that he will have his wishes, and not his fears, realised, when he says on this occasion, ‘*Actum est profecto de fortunis meis, et editionibus poetarum veterum per sudores meos in futurum procurandis, nisi sit hoc specimen lautis iudicibus liberaliter exceptum* ;’ yet we cannot help observing, that the studious, who do not abound in money, will be precluded by this *typographical luxury* from the purchase of the book, and that the present times are not particularly favourable to such literary exertions :

Nam neque nos *emere* hoc, patriæ tempore iniquo,
Possumus æquo animo.

Having taken notice of the most important parts of the preface, we shall give some specimens of the principal emendations and conjectures that distinguish this edition. We shall confine ourselves at present to the first book.

After the testimonies of authors, and the arguments of each book, we are introduced to the poem itself. Before we proceed, we shall warn our readers, to prevent mistakes, that the editions in our possession are the first of Gifanius (Antwerp,

1566), the fourth of Lambinus (Franckfort, 1583), and that of Havercamp.

Lib. i. ver. 2. Mr. Wakefield conjectures (not happily, we think) *sub te* for *subter*, and would make a pause after *signa*. In v. 5. he would read *limina* for *lumina*.

In v. 13. he follows the reading of the MSS. *perculsæ* instead of *percussæ*.

15. 16. 17. ————— Ita, capta lepore,

[Inlecebrisque tuis omnis natura animantium]

Te sequitur cupide, quo quamque inducere pergis.

He has inclosed the middle verse in brackets, as not being extant in any known MS. and as having been added by an ignoramus, who thought a nominative wanting, which is drawn from *quamque*. He would not perhaps have acted improperly, if he had totally expunged it, in imitation of Gifanius.

29. 30. To connect the members of the sentence, he would substitute *at* for *ut*, after *effice*.

35. *Rejicit, æterno devictus volnere amoris.*

Here he discusses the propriety of reading *reficit* and *devinctus*; but justly determines against both expressions.

45. Quod super est, vacuas aureis mihi, Memmius, et te,
Semotum—.

So Mr. Wakefield reads from MSS.; but, because two have *quæso*, vacuas mihi, Memmius, aureis, and another *semotim*, he would wish to read the passage in that manner; and the idea is not unreasonable. Other editions have *Memmiada*.

57—62. Mr. Wakefield has inclosed in brackets the famous passage concerning the tranquillity of the Epicurean deities. It is said to be absent from some MSS., in others it changes its place. In one copy, a marginal note is added by an ancient hand; 'Hi sex versus ex secundo libro' (645—650) 'in hunc locum translati sunt, non poëtæ operâ, sed scriptorum ignorantia.' It seems as if some religious reader had a mind to show the self-contradiction of the heathen poet, by bringing this passage so near to the invocation. However that may be, it provoked the animadversion of our facetious poet Prior, in his *Alma*.

'Lucretius keeps a mighty pother,
With *Cupid* and his fancied mother;
Calls her the queen of earth and air;
Declares, that wind and waves obey her;
And, while her honour he rehearſes,
Implores her to inspire his verses.

Yet, free from this poetic madness,
Next page he ſays, in ſober ſadneſs,

That she, and all her fellow gods,
Sit idling in their blest abodes;
Regardless of the world below,
Our health or hanging, weal or woe.'

69. Quem neque *fama* deum — Though we are not advocates for the frequent admission of conjectural emendations, we are not displeased to see Bentley's *fana* in the text, which is a very slight alteration, but greatly improves the sense.

71. Inritat animi virtutem, efringere ut arta—So this verse is given by Mr. Wakefield, upon authority of MSS. we doubt not; but there seems to be some confusion in the note. He only produces one authority for *effringere*; but, if our memory does not deceive us, we have seen the same reading in Aldus's edition of Priscian. The common reading is, *Virtutem irritat animi, confringere*—

83, 84. — quod contra sæpius olim
Religio.

The editor has followed Havercamp, and the reading of the MSS. *illa*. That same religion, we should say in English.

91. He has adopted *celerare*, instead of *celare*, from the Bologna edition. In Gifanius's margin, mention is made of another reading, *celebrare*, which nearly approaches to *celerare*.

115. Et simul intereat nobis cum, morte dirempta.

He properly animadverts on the conjecture of Creech, who recommended *perempta* at the end of this verse.

124. Sed quædam simulacra, modis pallentia miris.—This verse impressed itself so strongly upon Virgil's mind, that he borrowed or imitated it four times. Perhaps Lucretius himself borrowed it from Ennius.

137—140. Mr. Wakefield has corrected the punctuation, by placing a semicolon after *esse*, and joining 139 and 140. Gifanius had adopted nearly the same distinction. Ver. 139 is commonly inclosed in a parenthesis.

142. Gifanius and Mr. Wakefield give *ecferre* from MSS.

163. Squamigerum *genus*.

To avoid the repetition of *genus*, Mr. Wakefield is inclined, but has not ventured, to substitute *pecus*. Such a liberty would have been improper, as all the copies have the former word.

200, 201. Denique, quur homines tantos natura parare
Non potuit?

By a probable conjecture, *parire* is here recommended.

210. Manibus meliores reddere fetus. 'Pro reddere volebat Gifanius reddier; quam barbare!' Gifanius inserted it in the

text of his edition; Lambinus published *reddi*; both without the least necessity. But Gifanius was passionately fond of obtruding on Lucretius all possible poetical licences.

211. *Esse videlicet in terris primordia rerum.*—From the reading of the Bodleian MS. *in teneris*, the annotator proposes *in tenebris*.

231, 232. *Unde mare, ingenuei fontes, æternaque longe Flumina.*

He illustrates, from Hesiod, Ennius, and others, the reading *æterna*, which he found in one manuscript. The common reading is *externa*.

258. *Hinc fessæ pecudes.*—Bentley prefers *fetæ*, and our critic *fusæ*. *Fetæ*, which is the reading of some copies, seems not improbable.

279, 280. *Quæ mare, quæ terras, quæ denique nubila cœli, Verrunt.*

Mr. Wakefield is disgusted with *nubila*; and, indeed, it is apparently an anti-climax to make the wind agitate the sea and earth, and then, as the greatest effort of violence, exert itself upon the *clouds*, which a slight breeze can put in motion. He therefore advises, on plausible grounds, the substitution of *culmina*.

307. He retains the old reading, *dispestæ*, and adds, ‘*Pii editio habet candenti; omnino contra probabilitatem, et Nonii insuper suffragium.*’ When he made this remark, he should have allowed for the variations of editions. As far as we can judge, his Nonius is Gothofred’s edition; but *candenti* is cited from Nonius by Gifanius in his margin, and so Mercer published the passage.

335. *Quapropter locus est intactus inane, vacansque.*—In concert with Bentley, the editor pronounces this verse spurious. ‘*Nihil erat magis expectandum, quam hæc axiomata, sciolos esse illituros marginibus librorum, et ea tandem decursu temporis in textum migratura.*’

406. *Naribus inveniunt injectas frunde quietes.*—He has put *injectis* into the text, perhaps without sufficient external authority.

470, 471. *Namque aliud terris, aliud regionibus ipsis, Eventum dici poterit.*

Some of the editors have altered *terris*, the reading of the MSS. to *rebus*: but he retains *terris*, and inserts *legionibus*.

561. *Nunquam reliquo reparari tempore posset.* So it is in Havercamp’s edition; *nunquam rellequio* in that of Gifanius;

nunquam id relinquiō in that of Lambinus. Mr. Wakefield also inserts *id*, adding, "P. *Id reliquo nunquam*; Vind. *Id nunquam reliquo*. Nihil, aut parum, interest, quid ex his velis eligere." But it is of some consequence which reading we adopt, if Bentley says truly in his note upon Phædrus, i. 31, 13. that *reliquus* is always a quadrisyllable in the Latin poets, from Plautus to Phædrus inclusive. He then quotes the present passage of Lucretius, another from IV. 973. and reads in III. 649. without the preposition *cum*, *Corpore relinquiō pugnam cædesque petissit*. We have only to add, that the true writing of the word seems to be *relicuo*, which is favoured by MSS. in several places.

616—628. Lucretius endeavours to prove that there must be atoms, or first bodies, because otherwise we must admit the infinite divisibility of matter.

‘ ————— parvissima quæ sunt,
Ex infinitis constabunt partibus æque.
Quod, quoniam ratio reclamat vera, negatque
Credere posse animum, victus fateare necesse est,’ &c.

We quote this passage for the sake of remarking an odd co-incidence in an observation of Mr. Hume, who says, that no priestly dogmas ever shocked common sense so much, as the infinite divisibility of matter, with its consequences.

645. ————— et lepidò quæ sunt *fucata sonore*.

Mr. Wakefield is inclined to think, that *dulcata* would be preferable to *fucata*, as the latter word, considered with regard to *sonore*, appears to him to involve a confusion of metaphor. A manuscript in the British museum has *colore* for *sonore*; but we do not approve this reading, as it will not suit *aureis*; and, though *dulcata* may justly be deemed more congruous with *sonore* than *fucata*, we cannot fully concur in the proposed alteration, as *fucata* will better express the affectation to which the poet alludes.

746. ————— admiscent in eorum corpus inane.

Creech is again subjected to the lash of our commentator, as he unfortunately proposed *corpore* in this verse for *corpus*.

762. Mr. Wakefield has rightly restored the reading of the MSS. *tempestate coactâ*, instead of the conjecture of Lambinus, *coortâ*.

777. Cum terrâ simul, et quodam cum rore, manere.

He has thus given this disputed line on the authority of most of the MSS. He made some attempts for the emendation of it; but at length desisted, from despair of success; modestly saying, 'Peritioribus ingeniis, atque felicioribus conjecturarum, versum discutiendum tradimus, ad alia laxiora libentissime ex his angustiis procedentes.'

839. 840. Lucretius explains and refutes the *homœomeria* of Anaxagoras;

Ex aurique putat micis consistere posse
Aurum.

Mr. Wakefield has received into his edition Bentley's conjecture, *Ex auræque—Auram*. It must, however, be confessed, that the passages quoted from Simplicius and Diogenes Laërtius seem to defend the vulgar reading.

856. Ex oculis nostris, aliquâ vi *visita*, perire.

From *cuncta*, which he found in various copies for *visita*, he has formed *functa*, which he has well supported by examples.

873. Ex alienigenis consistant ligna, necesse est.

Immediately after this verse, two others are found in many MSS. One, however, is properly rejected by the present editor, as '*haud dubie adulterinus*;' and the other is thus given:

'Ex alienigenis, quæ lignis exoriuntur.'

875. Linquitur heic *quædam latitandi copia tenuis*.

This order of the words Mr. Wakefield has restored from some of the best MSS. instead of the vulgar reading, *tenuis latitandi copia quædam*. In the note, *copia* seems to have been inadvertently put for *quædam*.

976. quod prohibeat, *efficiatque*.—This is the reading of the greater part of the MSS. instead of *officiat*. Mr. Wakefield has also restored the reading of MSS. in v. 978—*non est a fine profectum*. The common editions had admitted, *non est ea finis profecto*; but the other reading is far preferable.

1024. *vexantur* percita plagis.—He has given *nexantur* from the Verona edition; and refers to lib. ii. v. 98.

1040. He reads with the generality of the MSS. *aliquâ ratione averfa*, for *rectâ regione*, referring to lib. v. v. 414.

1060. Most of the MSS. have *animalia supra*; but he follows Havercamp, who reads *suppa*.

1091. This verse is marked as suspicious, though in a note it is said, '*non omnino videtur volæias postulandus*.'

1100. *terræ cœlique ruinas*.—Mr. Wakefield has exhibited the reading of the best copies, *rerum*.

The second and following books will be accurately examined at a future opportunity.

A Tour in Switzerland; or, a View of the present State of the Governments and Manners of those Cantons: with comparative Sketches of the present State of Paris. By Helen Maria Williams. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

WHATEVER comes from the pen of miss Williams is valuable; and she has had the good fortune to be employed

upon subjects the most interesting to her countrymen. During the tumults of the French revolution, our most characteristic accounts came from the ingenious female who had been the friend of the Gironde party, and who shared the prison of Sillery and La Source; and now, when the fate of Switzerland is the theme of general discourse and common commiseration, this work appears to inform us rightly what those liberties are, of which we are so disposed to lament the invasion.

Miss Williams entered Switzerland with every prepossession in its favour. She had escaped from the prisons of Paris and the tyranny of Robespierre; and powerfully did the contrast affect her.

‘At length,’ (as she expresses her thoughts) ‘am I going to contemplate that interesting country, of which I have never heard without emotion! — I am going to gaze upon images of nature; images of which the idea has so often swelled my imagination, but which my eyes have never yet beheld. — I am going to repose my wearied spirit on those sublime objects — to sooth my desponding heart with the hope that the moral disorder I have witnessed shall be rectified, while I gaze on nature in all her admirable perfections; and how delightful a transition shall I find in the picture of social happiness which Switzerland presents! I shall no longer see liberty profaned and violated; here she smiles upon the hills, and decorates the vallies, and finds, in the uncorrupted simplicity of this people, a firmer barrier than in the craginess of their rocks, or the snows of their glaciers!’ Vol. i. p. 4.

Imagination had not equaled the sublime scenery of the country; but a short residence at Basil corrected her ideas of the people. For her disappointment she accounts liberally. She says:

‘It was perhaps my own fault, or rather the fault of former travellers. Warmed with enthusiasm for the natural beauties of the country, fancy, which loves the dreams of happiness and perfection, has delighted to associate with those enchanting scenes the charm of congenial society; and to connect with the sublime landscape the higher qualities of mind. Imagination places stock-jobbers and usurers with as much reluctance amidst the grandeur of Swiss scenery, as it would fill with a misshapen gothic image the niche of a Grecian temple. It must be indeed admitted, that the love of gold is a taste pretty generally diffused throughout Europe; that neither the inhabitants of Paris nor of London can be taxed with any remarkable indifference for riches; nor have wealthy persons in either of those capitals any reason to complain of the neglect of their fellow citizens. But although the people of most countries are, with respect to the researches of gain, burghers of Basil, during the hours of the morning, the evening at least is de-

voted to amusement, to social pleasure, to friendship, to some object that cheers, or soothes the heart, and the projects of interest are laid aside till the morrow. At Basil alone, the toils of trade find no relaxation; they begin with the day, but do not finish at its close; since even the hours of recreation are made subservient to the views of interest; and the only species of amusement in which the burghers of that city indulge themselves, is one at which they can arrange their commercial dealings, strike bargains, and vigorously pursue that main chance which appears to be, their "being's end, and aim." Vol. i. p. 6.

Such are the habits of the citizens of Basil; and their political liberties exist only in name. The burghers—a fifth part only of the population—'alone enjoy, or fancy they enjoy, the rights of equality.' The remainder are in a state of complete degradation; and all the peasantry of the canton, with an exception only of the little town of Leistal, are literally *serfs*, and annexed to the soil.

'The population of the canton of Basil being very far beyond the proportion of its extent of territory, great numbers are employed in manufactures, particularly that of cottons and ribbons, which are brought to great perfection. Over the manufacturers of these articles, the governors find it advantageous to manifest some portion of their right of sovereignty; for in vain the father of a family may cultivate his field of flax, and prepare it for use; in vain his wife may spin, his infants turn the wheel which winds the thread, and he himself weave the woof; the web when woven is not at his disposition—he has no right over the produce of his labour, no power to dispose of what he has acquired by the sweat of his brow and the toil of his hands; he must carry his little stock to the capital of his canton, and there, and only there, is permitted to sell it; while the burgher of the town, who is the purchaser, has previously arranged the price at which it shall be sold. A more vexatious law than this is, I believe, scarcely to be found in the whole code of despotism.' Vol. i. p. 103.

The other cantons of Switzerland are not favoured with a better system. In all, we meet with the despotism of an oligarchy. In Berne 'all places of honour, authority or profit belong exclusively to seventy-six families,' of which seventeen share the majority of votes; and with what contempt of common justice they administer the government, is well exemplified in the history of La Harpe. Yet these are the countries which have been represented as the happiest and best governed on earth.

'It is now asserted,' (says Miss Williams) 'that the freedom of Swiss governments has been the subject of eulogium only because compared with the other republics of Europe; the name bestowed on the small number of oligarchies, the most considerable of which have lately disappeared; the inhabitants of Switzerland enjoyed re-

lative advantages ; as the glow-worm becomes a luminary when all around is darkness.' Vol. ii. p. 205.

In her comparative view of the present state of Paris, our authoress has well selected the characteristic features of the time ; the costume *à la Grecque*, and *à la sauvage* ; the horrible *bal à la victime*, a strange and detestable commemoration, only perhaps to be accounted for as a rallying point for royalism ; the religious professions of the aristocrats, and the rise and increasing progress of the theophilanthropists, whose simple rites deserve the commendation which miss Williams has bestowed upon them. The same frivolity still characterises the Parisians. It was, for some time, the fashion among the ladies to regret the subversion of the old *régime*, the regret being attributed to the remembrance of the rank which they held ; but now, when such a retrospect is considered as the evidence of a certain age, the ladies of Paris are, of course, republicans. The enterprising genius of the men is directed towards commercial purposes ; and the ardour with which they pursue their plans will probably be attended with great and important improvements.

' All grasp at something strange, and something great ; a new world seems opening to their view, and which all model after their own fashion. Every man has seized upon some profound discovery, some happy speculation, which will infallibly pour forth an ever-flowing stream of inexhaustible wealth. When one chimera fails, another swiftly springs up ; all is " bubble, bubble, toil and trouble ;" spurred by hope, or goaded by want, every man mounts the hobby-horse of his imagination, and whips it up to some marvellous achievement.

' One citizen frames stoves of paper more durable than brass or steel ; another erects mills that scorn the aid of fire, wind, or water ; another extracts new chemical substances, which, when applied to commerce, are to produce riches beyond the visions of the alchemists. All announce that they have set their inventive talents upon the anvil, merely for the good of their country ; and as the ideas which the revolution has awakened, have given every individual in France some floating notions of his own importance, every man, however ignorant or mistaken, boldly brings forward his infallible plan, insists upon his right of being heard by his fellow-citizens, and calls upon every capitalist to hasten to him with his funds, and calculate, if he can, the enormous mass of interest with which the wings of every moment will be loaded.' Vol. i. p. 19.

From the view of oppression and folly, the reader is agreeably relieved in these volumes by following the authoress through the attractive scenes of Switzerland ; scenes which must awaken strong emotions in the coldest mind, and of which miss Williams was capable of understanding and de-

scribing the beauties. At Zurich she visited Lavater ; and was highly pleased with the devotional spirit, the meek and holy enthusiasm, of the venerable pastor ; the more particularly as she had been long accustomed to the cold cavils of scepticism. We quote the passage in justice to the feelings by which it was dictated.

‘ One of my fellow-travellers, who was anxious to wrest from the venerable pastor his confession of faith, brought in review before him the various opinions of the fathers, orthodox and heretic ; from Justin Martyr and Origen, down to the bishop of St. David’s and Dr. Priestley. But Lavater did not appear to have made polemics his study ; he seemed to think right and wrong, in historical fact, of far less importance than right and wrong in religious sentiment ; and above all, in human action. There was more of feeling than of logic in his conclusions ; and he appeared to have taken less pains to examine religion, than to apply its precepts to the regulation of those frailties and passions of the human heart, the traces of which, hidden from others, he had marked with such admirable accuracy in the character and expression of outward forms. For myself, I own the solemn, meek, affectionate expression of Lavater’s pious sentiments, were peculiarly soothing to my feelings, after having been so long stunned with the cavils of French philosophers, or rather the impertinent comments of their disciples, who are so proud of their scepticism, that they are for ever obtruding it in conversation. The number of those disciples is augmented since the revolution, which has spread far and wide the writings of Rousseau and Voltaire ; and every Frenchman, after having read those authors, though he may neither have taste enough to admire the charms of their genius, or virtue to feel the philanthropy of their sentiments, has, at least, acquired sufficient knowledge to assume the appellation of philosopher, and prove his claim to that title by enlisting himself under the banner of infidelity, without knowing the use of his arms.’ Vol. i. p. 71.

We doubt not that these volumes will attract considerable attention ; for we know of few works that combine so much amusement with such a fund of information.

The Life of Sir Charles Linnæus, Knight of the Swedish Order of the Polar Star, &c. &c. to which is [are] added, a copious List of his Works, and a Biographical Sketch of the Life of his Son : by D. H. Stoever, PH. D. Translated from the German by Joseph Trapp, A. M. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. White.

IT is not now the time to be the panegyrist of Linnæus. In various parts of our journal, we have been the guardians of his

'fair fame,' by placing his merits on their proper foundation, by avoiding indiscriminate adulation, and admitting acknowledged errors. The chief incidents of his life have already occurred to our notice; and we shall therefore, from the very copious biography now before us, only glean a few circumstances, which former authors may have omitted, slightly noticed, or misrepresented. We cannot, however, offer a single remark on the subject of the work, without previously expressing the highest disapprobation of Dr. Trapp's version, and our regret, that the members of the Linnæan society have not guarded against the injury done to the character of the naturalist from whom they are denominated, by this very erroneous translation. The work is, in itself, highly valuable; but it is difficult for the general and less informed reader to seize, in many instances, the meaning of the author in his uncouth and even disgusting garb.

The parts of the work which are more particularly new and interesting, are those which relate to the private life of Linnæus. The early difficulties which he felt from a contracted income, and his exertions to overcome them, are sufficiently known. We know, that he visited Holland and England, and that he was received here with great reserve, often indeed with almost a contemptuous coolness. Some passages respecting the conduct of our English naturalists we shall select: they are translated from his own diary.

'One of the principal motives of the journey of Linnæus to England, was the botanical garden at Chelsea. Clifford wished to procure some foreign plants from it. The great botanist Philip Miller, who died on the 18th of December, 1771, in the 80th year of his age, was then keeper of that garden. Linnæus waited on him, Miller conducted him into the garden, showed him the plants, and gave them their ancient and inaccurate names. Linnæus was silent, his silence was ascribed to ignorance, and Miller jocosely said to one of his acquaintance: "Sure, the botanist of burgomaster Clifford is a great man,—he knows nothing at all of plants."—Linnæus heard of this, and saw Miller again, firmly resolved to teach him to know better. Miller made use a second time of the ancient names. "Why do you apply these, pray?" asked Linnæus, "we have better and conciser appellations."—Miller still retained the ancient terms, was somewhat offended at the lesson he had received, but began, however, to conceive more esteem for the knowledge of Linnæus. The latter visited him a third time, and met with a more pleasant and polite reception, obtained the plants which he requested for Clifford's garden, kept up ever after a friendly acquaintance and correspondence with Miller, and the garden of Chelsea was finally arranged according to the Linnæan system.' p. 89.

Linnæus waited on Dillenius, and found him in company with another gentleman; who, as he afterwards learned, was no other than William Sherard. He addressed Dillenius in Latin, and apologized for his ignorance of the English language. After some short conversation, Dillenius said to Sherard in English: — "See, this is the young man who confounds all botany." — Linnæus understood this, as the word *confound*, so analogous to the Latin of *confundere*, was made use of; he feigned, however, not to understand him. They then went to the garden. Linnæus took great notice of a plant which he had not yet seen (*Anthirrhinum Minus*). He asked Dillenius what plant it was? "That is more than you can tell me:" answered the latter. — "Yes I can tell, if I may be permitted to take off a flower and examine it." — "Take one and welcome," said Dillenius. Linnæus took one and gave it the right name. Dillenius prepossessed by the pride of his own knowledge, continued to treat our luminary with great coolness and reserve.

The latter despaired of ever gaining his friendship, and obtaining presents of plants for Clifford's garden. His travelling money was also very nearly expended. He went therefore on the third day to Dillenius, and intreated him to let his servant hire a coach for him to return to London, as he could not speak English. The servant was dispatched. "Before I go," said Linnæus, "I have one favor more to request: pray tell me candidly, why did you tell the man who was with you the day before yesterday, that I was the person who confounded all botany." Astonished and thunder-struck! Dillenius endeavoured to deny what he had said, and to turn the conversation on some other subject, but Linnæus insisted on an explanation.

"Well," said Dillenius, "come along with me." He went to his library and showed Linnæus his work: entitled *Genera Plantarum*, of which Gronov, without his knowledge, had sent him one half of the printed sheets. Every page was marked in different places with the letters N. B. — "What do these marks signify?" asked Linnæus. — "They signify all the false genera of plants in your book." — "They are not false," replied Linnæus, "or if they are, I beg you would teach me better; I will thankfully receive your correction." — "Very well, let us try." — They went in the garden. Dillenius took up a plant called *blitum*, in his and others opinion it had three stamina. Linnæus examined the flower, and found, according to his assertion, that it only had one. — "Psha! such a thing may happen in one flower," exclaimed Dillenius, — but it was so with all. — Several plants were now examined, and the genera given by Linnæus proved to be accurate. This effected an entire change in the conduct of Dillenius. "You must not be gone so soon," said he: "I wish you would assist me in arranging and classing Sherard's collections." Linnæus saw those collections, remained some time longer at Oxford, and re-

ceived of Dillenius all the plants he wished to have for Clifford's garden.' P. 91.

Sir Hans Sloane received our naturalist with more than the coolness of Dillenius; and indeed the latter seems never to have been cordially reconciled to this daring innovator. Veterans almost always look with jealousy on those who follow, and are likely to eclipse them; nor did Linnæus, in his early works, conciliate esteem by an ingenuous modesty. He seemed sometimes to catch, with a bold arrogance, the laurel which time was bending within his reach, and which the successors of the Sloanes and Hallers would willingly have accorded to him. Haller himself, in the full career of his credit, seemed to feel some envy at the appearance of this new meteor, whose coruscations eclipsed his more steady light; and their correspondence was rarely animated by cordial friendship, being often interrupted by disagreements, not always creditable to the senator of Berne. Yet Haller was at times warm in his commendation; and, with a zeal for the promotion of science, rather perhaps than a friendly or personal view, wished for Linnæus as his successor in the botanical chair at Gottingen. All the disputes concerning the Linnæan system are related with great propriety; and a short abstract is given of a curious anonymous tract published by our naturalist; the only professed vindication of himself, — *Orbis eruditi Judicium de C. Linnæi Scriptis*.

The rise of the prosperity of Linnæus at Stockholm, and his establishment at Upsal, are minutely related; and, in many parts of this volume, we find information which would add to or correct the biographical attempts of other authors. We shall select what relates to his first success as a medical practitioner, since, like our former extract, it is taken from his own memoranda.

'The cure of a long, and now, alas! a fashionable distemper of a friend, which was effected in a fortnight, paved Linnæus the way to fortune in his practice. This recovered patient recommended Linnæus as an able physician to his numerous acquaintance. Among these were several of the same description who complained of weakness in the breast, and abstained on this account from drinking wine. They applied to Linnæus, he restored them, and they could afterwards enjoy their glass with the best. This circumstance made a great impression on the jovial circles. His reputation increased, and no physician was thought more able than Linnæus in curing all pectoral complaints. He was called to the lady of an aulic counsellor, troubled with a cough. Linnæus prescribed a remedy which she could carry by her for constant use. This lady was one day at court on a card party with queen Ulrica

Blednora. While playing, ' she put something into her mouth. " What is this ?" asked the queen. — " A remedy against the cough, may it please your majesty; I always find myself much relieved after using it." — The queen had a cough at that very time. Linnæus was called, he prescribed the same remedy, and the queen's ailment disappeared. — Thus did the cough first introduce him to court, and there advance his prosperity.

' The patron to whom Linnæus stood indebted for his recent good fortune, was that celebrated statesman count Charles Gustavus Tessin, who educated the late king of Sweden, and terminated his meritorious career on the seventh of January 1770. He was well versed in the sciences and a great lover of natural history. To his attention and favour Sweden owes the display of the greatest genius which it ever produced. Linnæus always found in him the kindest and most zealous protector, through whose interest he obtained all further dignities and honours. To transmit the remembrance of those benefits to posterity, he enumerated them in a public manner in the last edition of his System of Nature, which he dedicated to this noble friend. " He received me," says Linnæus, " on my return, when I was a stranger in my own country, he obtained for me a salary from the states, the appointment of physician to the admiralty, the professor of botany at Upsal, the title of dean or president of the college of physicians, the favour of two kings, and recommended me by a medal to posterity."

' The manner in which count Tessin first avowed himself the protector of Linnæus deserves particular mention. Having made himself known at court by the cure of the cough, the count, who was already acquainted with his distinguished rank in science, sent for him, and after long conversation asked him, if he did not wish for some office, or if he would like to petition for any place, as the diet was then assembled. " The charge of physician to the admiralty is now vacant," replied Linnæus, " but it is destined, as I hear, for another." " But that other shall not have it," replied the count; and a few weeks after, on the 14th or 15th of May, Linnæus received the diploma of physician to the navy and botanist to the king.' P. 145.

The splendor of his meridian fame is sufficiently known. At a distance, this splendor is unimpaired; when we approach, spots and deformities are visible; and we see with regret the evening of a brilliant life sometimes clouded by domestic uneasiness. We shall present Linnæus, in our future extracts, in his private life, literally in his night-gown and slippers. The account is taken from Fabricius, one of his most favoured pupils.

' We were three, Kuhn, Zoega, and I, all foreigners. In winter we lived directly facing his house, and he came to us almost every day, in his short red *robe de chambre*, with a green fur-cap on

his head and a pipe in his hand. He came for half an hour but stopped a whole one, and many times two. His conversation on these occasions was extremely sprightly and pleasant. It either consisted in anecdotes relative to the learned in his profession, with whom he got acquainted in foreign countries, or in clearing up our doubts, or giving us other kinds of instruction. He used to laugh then most heartily, and displayed a serenity and an openness of countenance, which proved how much his soul was susceptible of amity and good fellowship.

Our life was much happier when we resided in the country. Our habitation was about half a quarter of a league distant from his house at Hammarby — in a farm where we kept our own furniture and other requisites for housekeeping. He rose very early in summer, and mostly about four o'clock. At six he came to us because his house was then building, breakfasted with us, and gave lectures upon the natural orders of plants (*ordines naturales plantarum*), as long as he pleased, and generally till about ten o'clock. We then wandered about till twelve upon the adjacent rocks, the productions of which afforded us plenty of entertainment. In the afternoon we repaired to his garden, and in the evening we mostly played at the Swedish game of triflett, in company with his spouse.

On Sundays the whole family usually came to spend the day with us. We sent for a peasant who played on an instrument resembling a violin, at the sound of which we danced in the barn of our farm-house. Our balls were certainly not very splendid, the company but small, the music superlatively rustic, and no change in the dances, which were constantly either minuets or Polish; but regardless of these wants we passed our time very merrily. While we were dancing, the old man, who smoked his pipe with Zoega, who was deformed by nature, and emaciated, became a spectator of our amusement, and sometimes, though very rarely, danced a Polish dance, in which he excelled every one of us young men. He was extremely delighted whenever he saw us in high glee, nay, if we even became very noisy; had he not always found us so, he would have manifested his apprehensions lest we should not be sufficiently entertained. — Those days, those hours shall never be erased from my memory, and every remembrance of them is grateful to my heart! P. 273.

When I got acquainted with sir Charles Linnæus, who was then in his fifty-sixth year, increasing age had already furrowed his front with wrinkles. His countenance was open, almost constantly serene, and bore great resemblance to his portrait in the *species plantarum*. His eyes, — of all the eyes I ever saw, — were the most beautiful. They certainly were but little, but darted a resplendent splendor and a penetration of aspect which I never observed before in any other man. It sometimes appeared to me, as if

his looks would penetrate through the very innermost recesses of the heart.

‘ His mind was remarkably noble and elevated, though I well know that some persons accused him of several faults; the acuteness and energy of his mental faculties, even shone through his eyes. But his greatest excellence consisted in the systematical order, by which his thoughts succeeded each other. Whatever he said or did was faithful to order, to truth, and to regularity. In his youth his memory was uncommonly vigorous, but it began to sink early into decay. Even when I was with him, he could not sometimes remember the names of his dearest friends and relatives. I still recollect to have seen him once very much embarrassed, when, after writing a letter to Moræus, his father-in-law at Fahlun, he almost found it impossible to recollect his name.

‘ His passions were strong and violent. His heart was open to every impression of joy; and he loved jocularity, conviviality and good living. He was an excellent companion, pleasant in conversation, full of strong hits of fancy and seasonable and entertaining stories; but at the same time, suddenly roused to anger and boisterous; the sudden effervescence of this fiery passion subsided however, almost at the very moment of its birth, and he immediately became all plain good-nature again. His friendship was sure and invariable. Science was generally its basis; and every one who knew him must own what concern he always manifested for his pupils, and with how much zeal they returned his friendship, and frequently became his defenders. He was so fortunate as to find among his favourites none that were ungrateful; even Rolander deserved more to be pitied than blamed.’ P. 276.

‘ He was not quite happy and comfortable in his own family. His wife was tall, robust, domineering, selfish, and destitute of every advantage of good education. She frequently robbed us of the joys which gilded our social moments. Unable to hold any conversation in decent company, she consequently was never much fond of it herself.

‘ Under those disadvantages, the education of the children of Linnæus could not but be of an inferior description. The young ladies, his daughters, are all good-tempered, but rough children of nature, and deprived of those external accomplishments which they might have derived from a better education. The younger Linnæus, who succeeded his father in his professorship at Upsal, is certainly not endowed with the same vivacity; but the great knowledge which he acquired by a constant practice of botany, and by the many and excellent observations of his parent which he found in his manuscripts, must have rendered him a very useful man there. The eldest daughter, who married captain Von Bergencranz, returned afterwards to her parents, and lived constantly in their house.’ P. 278.

The life of the younger Linnæus follows; the Supplement was, it seems, the work of the father, and some of the later discoveries were added by the son. Dr. Stoeber endeavours to raise the character of the son by every favourable representation; but he wanted the ardour, the active exertions—in a word, the genius—of the father. A complete list is given of the works of Linnæus; and various extracts from his diary, with other incidental notices, conclude this very interesting, if not very pleasing, volume.

We are glad, from the authority of the notes, to find that the younger Haller and Sigesbeck lived to express their sorrow for having written against him; and to contradict what is said in the text, that Linnæus, with a mean spirit of revenge, affixed the names of his enemies to plants of a disgusting appearance and noxious properties.

Travels in the Two Sicilies, and some Parts of the Apennines. Translated from the original Italian of the Abbé Lazzaro Spallanzani, Professor-Royal of Natural History in the University of Pavia, &c.

(Continued from Vol. XXII. Page 262.)

THE Lipari Islands engage a large share of the abbé's attention: indeed, they have never been closely examined, except by M. Dolomieu; and even that investigator, though diligent and attentive, has left an ample field for future observations and inquiries. The smoke of the volcano of Stromboli seems not to be the faithful prophet of the weather which is soon to follow, as some authors have supposed. The account of the appearances of an eruption we shall transcribe.

‘The south-east wind blew strong. The sky, which was clear, the moon not shining, exhibited the appearance of a beautiful aurora borealis, over that part of the mountain where the volcano is situated, and which, from time to time, became more red and brilliant, when the ignited stones were thrown to a greater height from the top of the mountain. The fiery showers were then more copious, and the explosions which followed them louder, the strongest resembling those of a large mine which does not succeed properly, from some cleft or vent. Every explosion, however, slightly shook the house in which I was, and the degree of the shock was proportionate to the loudness of the sound. I do not believe that these shocks were of the nature of the earthquake; they were certainly to be ascribed to the sudden action of the fiery ejections on the air, which struck the small house in which I was, in the same manner as the discharge of a cannon will shake the windows of the neighbouring houses, and sometimes the houses

themselves. A proof of this is, that the fiery showers always were seen a few seconds before the shock was felt, whereas the house was so near the volcano, that, had it been a real earthquake, no interval of time would have been perceptible.

‘ Before the morning rose, the fiery light over the volcano increased so much, at three different times, that it illuminated the whole island, and a part of the sea. This light was each time but of short duration, and the showers of ignited stones were, while it lasted, more copious than before.

‘ On the morning of the 2d of the same month, the south-east wind blew stronger than ever, and the sea was greatly agitated. The smoke of Stromboli formed a kind of cap round the top of the mountain, which descended much lower than on the preceding day. The phenomena were the same; but the convulsions of the volcano were more violent. The explosions were very frequent, but always with a hollow sound; and the ejected ashes reached the scattered dwellings of the people of the island. In the morning, the ground appeared very plentifully sprinkled with these ashes, as they are called by the natives; but, on examination, I found that they were not properly ashes, but very finely triturated scorizæ, consisting of very small grains of no determinate form, dry, and rough to the touch, and which crumble into powder under the finger. They are not very far from a vitreous nature, in colour between a grey and a red, semi-transparent, and so light, that some will float on the water. Their levity proceeds from the great quantity of vesicles, or pores, which they contain, and which causes them, when viewed with the lens, to bear some resemblance to the sea production of unknown origin called *savago* (*savaggine*).’ Vol. ii. P. 19.

The volcano is now half-way down the mountain; but the author thinks, with much plausibility, that the crater was once on the top. Sir William Hamilton represents the crater as being at this time on the top; a mistake which, in the abbé's opinion, arose from his having surveyed this island, at a distance, from the sea. The stones thrown out have had no effect in making the surrounding sea shallower, not because they are again drawn in by the mountain, to furnish fresh showers, as the islanders absurdly imagine, but because they consist of scoriaceous lava, and are soon triturated by the action of the waves. The explosions have not the intermissions usually supposed by those who at a distance could not hear the smaller bursts; and the matter, in moderate eruptions, is ejected to the height of about half a mile. Our adventurous philosopher advanced to the crater of Stromboli; and, as such attempts will not probably be often made, we shall select his description.

‘ The crater, to a certain height, is filled with a liquid red-hot matter, resembling melted brass, and which is the fluid lava. This lava appeared to be agitated by two distinct motions; the one intestine, whirling, and tumultuous; and the other, that by which it is impelled upwards. This motion in particular merited to be examined with attention. The liquid matter is raised, sometimes with more, and sometimes with less rapidity, within the crater, and when it has reached the distance of twenty-five or thirty feet, from the upper edge, a sound is heard not unlike a very short clap of thunder; while, at the same moment, a portion of the lava, separated into a thousand pieces, is thrown up, with indescribable swiftness, accompanied with a copious eruption of smoke, ashes, and sand. A few moments before the report, the superficies of the lava is inflated, and covered with large bubbles; some of which are several feet in diameter, which bubbles presently burst, and, at the same instant, the detonation and fiery shower take place. After the explosion, the lava within the crater sinks, but soon again rises as before, and new tumours appear, which again burst, and produce new explosions. When the lava sinks, it produces little or no sound; but when it rises, and especially when it begins to be inflated with bubbles, it is accompanied with a sound, similar, in proportion to the difference of magnitude, to that of a liquor boiling vehemently in a caldron.

‘ I remained in this cavity, which so conveniently sheltered me from danger, an hour and a quarter; during which time, besides the observations I have already stated, I was enabled to make the following:

‘ Every ejection, however small, was not only accompanied by an explosion, but was proportionate to it in its intensity. Hence, as the stones which are only thrown to the height of ten or twenty yards above the crater, are not visible to the eye at a distance, so, neither, is the detonation by which such ejections are accompanied, sensible to the ear.

‘ In the smaller and moderate ejections, the stones fell back into the crater, and, at their collision with the fluid lava, produced, as I have already said, a sound similar to that of water struck by a number of staves; but, in the greater ejections, a considerable quantity of them always fell without the mouth; though that lying low, and surrounded with heights, the greater part of them rolled again into it. Here, however, we must except that side of the crater which lies immediately over the precipice before described, since there, every stone which fell without the crater, bounded down the declivity, and descended to the sea. When I viewed this precipice from the water, it appeared to me to terminate in a point; but here I distinctly perceived, that, where it reached the volcano, it was more than sixty feet in breadth.

‘ The redness of the larger ignited stones (which were only pieces of scoriaceous lava) was visible in the air, notwithstanding

the light of the sun. Many of them clashed against each other and were broken, which happened only when they were at a certain height; for, when they were nearer to the volcano, they frequently adhered, on touching each other, in consequence of the fluidity they retained. The lava of the crater, when it rose or fell, emitted but little smoke; but a great quantity when it exploded. The smoke issued from its fissures, but almost immediately disappeared after the explosion. It might be compared to the smoke produced by the firing of gunpowder, and which appears and disappears with the flash. This smoke appeared to me extraneous to the lava; at least, the fragments of the latter neither smoke as they fly in the air, nor after they have reached the ground.

‘In consequence of the alternate rising and sinking of the lava, according as it is inflated or makes its discharge, the depth of the crater cannot be considered as constant. When the lava is at its height, it may be about five-and-twenty or thirty feet deep; and, when it has subsided, about forty or fifty; the greatest rising of the lava may, therefore, be estimated at about twenty feet.’ Vol. ii. p. 58.

The basis of the lava of Stromboli is horn-stone. No pumice has been observed; for the scoriæ, though filamentous, have not the peculiar structure and other characteristics of pumice-stone. They approach to the nature of glass; and even the oldest scoriæ seem to have undergone nearly the same degree of heat as the latest. Schoerls and felt-spars occur, as in the other lavas of these regions. The abbé describes the other productions of Stromboli, and, among the rest, the specular iron, which he first discovered in this island. Stromboli has burned beyond the earliest æras of historic record; and its fires seem to be chiefly supported by pyrites.

Some rocks, which we scarcely need stop to name, lie on the left in sailing from Lipari to Sicily. They are, perhaps, the remains of the ancient Euonymos, the seventh of the Æolian Isles in the time of Strabo. They are evidently volcanic; and, at the side of one of these, a hot exhalation is still observable, and sulphureous hydrogenated gas was collected in the same spot; so that, in all probability, a latent fire still exists there. The granite of these coasts, from which the scoriæ seem to have been formed, was infusible in a fire of $87^{\circ}\frac{1}{8}$ of Wedgwood's pyrometer (the heat of a common forge), and imperfectly fusible at much higher degrees. Indeed, granite seems wholly infusible, unless its basis be felt-spar, and its proportion of flint very small. In a wind-furnace of 90° of Wedgwood, granite melted very imperfectly. We ought not, however, to conclude with Spallanzani, that, in these volcanos, the heat has been so intense, but that the lavas were really not formed of granite.

Vulcano and Vulcanello were once distinct islands, but are now united by an isthmus of lava. The crater of Vulcano offered nothing new, but the noise of seemingly contending rivers below, and the frequent eruptions of hydrogenous blasts. The grotto is an excavation in the sides of the crater, 110 feet in height, and 250 in breadth, ending at the bottom in a pit of the circumference of 30 feet. Its suffocating white fumes are immense in quantity, and form, when collected by the sides, stalactites of sulphur. Even some vitreous lavas have been decomposed by these sulphureous fumes, which are the general agents for decomposing lavas. The abbé admits, with M. Sage, that the fumes of muriatic acid may have the same effect; but these do not occur in the burning mountains, hitherto examined. Prismatic or basaltiform lavas our author observed on the sides of the crater of Vulcano, which must have been of igneous origin; they owe, in his opinion, their form to retraction, in consequence of sudden cooling. He discovered a smaller crater about half-way up the mountain, which will soon be filled. He has given a copious history of these mountains, from the accounts of ancient and modern observers.

The island of Lipari furnishes many curious remarks. The castle and the town are situated on a vast mass of volcanic glass, divided into laminæ by some extraneous substances, which seem to have risen to the top of the melted fluid, and prevented the subsequent current from uniting with it. This glass, though apparently without bubbles, swells, in an extraordinary degree, in the fire. At a small distance, is a rock whose ground was of a blood-red colour, of the hardness of quartz, which however proved to be of volcanic origin. It contained reddish scales of felt-spar or schoerls, and seemed to be a kind of porphyry, with a horn-stone basis.

The most important objects of the author's inquiry, in this district, are the pumices; and we would refer the inquisitive mineralogist to the work itself: we can give only a short abstract of it. The pumice chiefly assumes a globular form; and the lighter kinds lie on the top, the denser below. It is not generally known, that the pumices have sometimes flowed in igneous streams, and formed veins or beds. This fact, however, the abbé has completely ascertained. Under these veins, the light globular pumices are also found; but we do not think, with him, that this forms a contradiction to the usual rule of a lighter or of the more compact lava; for these lighter pumices were probably the effects of a prior explosion. They contain felt-spars, not visible until they have undergone the farther action of fire. Some of the more compact pumices are black, in consequence of their containing bitumen. They

are all, at least *all* of *this* district, found to originate from a lava with a felt-spar base. All seem to be asbestine or amiantine, since they all contain magnesia; but the more porous comprehend about $\frac{1}{4}$ part of alumine; the less porous, scarcely more than $\frac{1}{25}$: the former approach in their analysis to the felt-spars.

The abbé next describes the numerous glasses of Lipari; the ultimate change of earthy bodies, exposed to the fire. He also mentions enamels and lavas approaching to vitrification. No decided crater can at present be discovered; and the whole glassy substance is almost completely sterile. On the other sides of the island are common lavas, and some stones, whose formation is attributed to filtration. Some glassy coatings, though superficial, seem to have been produced, not by a beginning vitrification, but by some process subsequent to the fusion. Lavas, partly decomposed, will not become glass in the crucible.

Internally, 'Lipari is a ruinous pile of horrid precipices, rugged cliffs, and enormous masses.' Two mountains, nearly of equal height, appear to have been the earliest volcanic productions upon this spot, and not to have depended on each other. These are Monte San Angelo and Monte della Guardia. No crater is observable in either. In a survey of a smaller mountain, that of Stoves, the abbé passed over a bed of tufa, which took the curvatures of the mountain, and seemed, in his opinion, to be the ruined materials carried down by a slimy fluid. This may have been the case with the tufa in question; but it is not, we believe, generally so. Tufa usually consists of various substances seemingly ejected from a volcano, and united by the attraction of cohesion in consequence of pressure. This, we think, we could prove from the appearances of many different masses of this kind. In the present tufa, there are various volcanic bodies, and even some pieces of 'coal' (charcoal): the lavas, the garnets, the chrysolithes, &c. discovered in it, are examined at some length. On the top of the mountain is an ample plain of tufa become earthy, mixed with shining pieces of glass, brought up by the plough. *This* tufa could not surely have been brought by a slimy current. The account of the Stoves we shall transcribe.

'Beyond this plain there is a gentle descent of about two hundred feet in length, at the end of which are the Stoves. Whatever prepossession in their favour the traveller may have conceived from hearing so much of them, he loses it the moment he sees them. They form a group of four or five caves, more like to the dens of bears than the habitations of men; and which exhibit much less of art than the edifices framed by the beaver. Every cave has an

opening at the bottom, through which the warm and humid vapours enter, and another in the top through which they pass out, I entered one of these, but was unable to remain long in it, less from the heat, for the thermometer stood at only $48\frac{2}{3}$ degrees, than from I know not what of a suffocating nature which the air had in it. These Stoves now retain little more than their name, and are nearly deserted. In fact, though they still retained their virtue, and were efficacious in the cure of various disorders, how would it be possible to make use of them, when they are destitute of every convenience necessary to that purpose?

When M. Dolomieu visited them, the whole ground on which they stand was penetrated with hot vapours, which, under the form of a thick smoke, issued from small apertures of about an inch, or two inches, in diameter. When I was there, circumstances were much changed, as usually happens in volcanos, where the presence of fire manifests itself sometimes more and sometimes less. There was then only one aperture, of about an inch in diameter, from which, from time to time, issued a thin stream of smoke, with a strong sulphureous smell. Having enlarged this aperture, I found it surrounded by a small quantity of soft sulphures of iron (pyrites), generated by the union of iron and sulphur. The abbate Trovatini, whom I have cited in another place, likewise attests, that, at certain times, several streams of smoke ascended round the Stoves; and I shall add, that, besides the strong smell of sulphur, which I perceived on approaching the place, the ground became hot, and the fetor increased, on digging to about the depth of a foot: from which it may be concluded, that under the Stoves and the ground adjacent, some remains of sulphureous conflagration still continue. The Stoves, and the warm baths, of which we shall speak below, are the only places in the whole island where any signs are to be found of as yet unextinguished volcanos.
Vol. iii. p. 43.

The decomposed lavas of these mountains are black or reddish, each owing its peculiar colour to iron, in different states. The lava itself is of the horn-stone kind, with felt-spar; but the latter, as well as the base, is frequently decomposed. The change of lava into clay, so often suggested by systematic cosmogonists, is not supported by the observations of Spallanzani.

The zeolithes of this island resemble those of other regions, not exclusively volcanic. They seem to originate, in volcanic countries, from the water of the neighbouring sea. This, our author thinks, is their source in Lipari, though no impressions of marine plants have survived the lapse of time; for this island was inhabited even in the days of Homer, and, in the time of Aristotle, it burned with a faint flame, visible only in the night. It is properly observed by the abbé, that, though

Lipari consists of glass, it does not follow that it burned more intensely than any other spot, but only that its materials were more fusible. It is evident, that the heat must have been less than 88° of Wedgwood, that of 'the furnace,' since various bodies, remaining unchanged in the glasses of Lipari, were melted by that heat. That the fire of this volcano has ever exceeded the degree mentioned, is by no means clear. If granite, as Dolomieu suspects, has been fused by it, we know, from our author's former experiments, that it must have been chiefly felt-spar. The existence of detached lavas, however, in granitic countries, is no proof, without much more minute inquiry, that granite is their base.

Felicuda, a neighbouring island, is also decidedly volcanic. It consists of an irregular mass of hills, in the highest of which, and in one other at some distance, our author discovered an evident crater. This island is chiefly distinguishable for its prismatic lavas. Their situation and appearance are thus described:

'First, These prisms have never more than three faces, one of which always remains adherent to the lava.

'Secondly, Their direction is never oblique, or transverse; but, without exception, perpendicular to the sea.

'Thirdly, They are not articulated, as they have been observed to be in some volcanic countries, especially on mount Etna, but form one continued line.

'Fourthly, In their lower extremity they descend within the water, and, in their upper, rise some feet above the level of the sea.

'Fifthly, These prismatic lavas have for their base, either the horn stone or shoerl in the mass.' Vol. iii. p. 105.

In the other lava, round the shore, there are deep fissures, and many round vacuities, which this writer attributes to the action of gaseous fluids, though he admits of the corrosive power of sea air and spray, particularly on calcareous substances. The fissures may, however, be more probably ascribed to retraction; and to this we are rather inclined to attribute the excavation of the Grotta del Bove marino, than to the action of gasses. There is no evidence of the latter, in any instance, producing large cavities. The lavas are of the usual kind, not decomposed by sulphureous fumes, but broken into powder by the action of the air. The scoriæ and spongy lavas are, in this way, wholly destroyed. The parts which are covered by the tufa are alone fertile, and among these are found the glasses and pumices, detached in different proportions. Besides the usual porous pumice, there is a more compact kind; but here are no marks of its having flowed in a current. Puozzolane is also found in Felicuda.

Alicuda, the last of the Lipari islands, is evidently volcanic; and its lava is of the petro-filiceous kind. Some considerable globes of lava are found here, which do not owe their rotundity to the agitation of the waves, but to the mutual attraction of their parts, when ejected in a fluid state from the volcano. The other kind of lava is in mass; but, though of very great antiquity, it is as brilliant as lava on its first cooling, without the slightest mark of decomposition. In another part of the island, is a rock of porphyry not volcanic, evidently from its nature the original stone of the island, the matrix of each kind of lava. A more spongy lava, of a similar nature, occasionally occurs. This island is one mass of horrid, irregular, mis-shapen ruins, with scarcely any appearance of a crater but in one spot. M. Dolomieu describes it as distant only five miles from Felicuda, and thinks that the two islands were once united; but Spallanzani, by a nearer and more accurate examination, has detected these errors.

Not contented with examining the volcanos, our indefatigable naturalist explored also the bottom of the sea, between these islands. From his observations, he thinks we may conclude,

‘First, That the part of the islands which is buried under the waters of the sea, has suffered the action of the fire in the same manner with that which is exposed to the eye of the observer. Secondly, That Vulcano, Lipari, and Saline, form one continued group of volcanized substances, which, at first, might probably have one common central conflagration, that, dividing into three branches, and affording a passage to three distinct mouths, gave birth to three islands; which conflagration, by subaltern and successive ramifications, and ejections of new matters, afterwards increased in extent. No sensible remains, indeed, of such a fire, are at present discoverable in the internal parts of Saline, nor are any observable in Lipari, its whole efficacy appearing to be confined to Vulcano. Thirdly, That Alicuda, Felicuda, and Saline, do not appear to have any volcanic communication with each other, at least in the parts that form the bed of the sea, which separates these three islands from each other; since those parts, as far as the eye can perceive, shew no signs of the action of fire. Fourthly, that these three islands, and perhaps likewise Stromboli, are situated in the vicinity of analogous but primitive rocks. The perfect resemblance of the shoerls and felt-spars in these rocks, both in those that have suffered change from the fire and those that have not, is a demonstration that these crystallizations have not been taken up by the lavas when they flowed in currents, nor formed in them at the time of their congelation.’ Vol. iii. p. 163.

From Stromboli, the easternmost island, to Alicuda on the west, these islands extend 50 miles, nearly in a right line. Va-

rious instances are mentioned, where islands, produced by volcanic eruptions, are equally raised in the rectilinear direction. The quantity of vitreous matter noticed, and the number of glassy substances which, at the bottom of the sea, join Lipari and Vulcano, are unequaled in the annals of volcanic countries. Pumices sometimes occur in other parts of the world: we have the black agate of Iceland, and the gallinaceous stone of the Andes; but there are no mountains of glass and strata of pumice, except in these regions. This glass, in our author's opinion, arises from more active heat; and the usual progress is from lava to pumice, and thence to glass: the transition from pumice to glass has often been noticed in the same specimen. We cannot, however, imitate either the compact lavas or the pumices in our common fires, probably because their form is connected with peculiar gasses, which have escaped. The original colour of pumice is black, the whiteness being acquired from the air.

The origin of basalt has occasioned much disquisition. We were once fully of opinion, that this kind of stone derived its prismatic form, in the dry way, from retraction, perhaps from crystallisation: but, on farther inquiry, all the facts could not be reconciled to this origin; nor was it, on the contrary, disproved by new observations. It is with great satisfaction, that we find our author balancing in the same manner. The original Egyptian basalt, from the experiments of M. Dolomieu on the basaltic sarcophagi, is certainly not of igneous origin; while that which is noticed in the present article evidently was so. In fact, this form is derived from fusion as well as from solution, and, in each, may proceed from the same principle. If the minute parts of bodies have, from their particular attractions, a tendency to unite in peculiar forms, they will do so when their cohesion is destroyed either by fire or water. We must not, therefore, where we observe basalt, always suppose a volcano to have pre-existed.

The cause of this regular contraction has been thought to be the action of sea-water, when lavas flow into it. This opinion the abbé supports by some facts; but basaltic columns appear where the lava could not have been cooled in water, and are not discovered when this co-incidence has taken place. Many other lavas, cooled both in the sea and the air, have no such crystallisations. It was next inquired, whether the form was connected with the properties of the lava; but, on examination, this clue also failed. The cause, therefore, is still unknown. The abbé, however, leaning towards M. Dolomieu's system, has suggested a modification of it, and is inclined to attribute the configuration to *sudden* cooling, either by water or by cold winds.

As we have now concluded the subject of the Lipari islands, we shall attend to the other inquiries in a future article, which will close our account of these very instructive and interesting volumes.

(*To be continued.*)

Plants of the Coast of Coromandel; selected from Drawings and Descriptions presented to the Honourable Court of Directors of the East-India Company, by William Roxburgh, M. D. Published, by their Order, under the Direction of Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S. Vol. I. Imperial Folio. 3l. 10s. Boards. Nicol.

THIS very splendid work is worthy of the patrons under whose auspices it is presented to the public, and of the diligence and ingenuity exerted in the requisite investigations. The vast continent of India affords a harvest, into which few sickles have yet been introduced. The casual glances of the ancients afforded only a foundation for a splendid tale, or suggested materials for the artful impostor; while the native Arabian and Hindû have embellished natural scenes with fictions so extravagant, and have so wildly adorned the works of nature with the tinsel of fancy, that the eye of reason and philosophy can no longer distinguish truth from invention. The excellence of the manufactures of the Indian nations, and the real or fancied superiority of their remedies, can be known and appreciated only when the materials and their sources are indisputably ascertained. The calm and patient Hindû indeed follows, with unwearied care, the slow steps of an ancient and tedious process, which European skill facilitates, and many steps of which European science anticipates; but, to produce the same effects, the same substances are required; and to know them is a point of necessary importance. This first volume, therefore, of Indian botany, we must receive with cordial regard, and consider it as the harbinger of much useful instruction; nor is it the least interesting part of the inquiry to observe, with what care nature preserves and supports her progeny in regions, where heat and inundations are, at times, equally pernicious.

Indian botany was first greatly indebted to a disciple of the Linnæan school. Kœnig, like those selected by the university of Upsal, who have so greatly added to our knowledge of nature in almost every country, was patient, temperate, and industrious. Indefatigable in his own pursuits, to which he at last fell a victim, he was willing to lessen the difficulties of others, and freely gave that assistance, which his knowledge

enabled him to impart. He was sent to Tranquebar, both as physician and naturalist; but, his salary being inadequate to his expenses in various excursions, he was retained as naturalist by the nabob of Arcot, and farther assisted by the government of Madras. Dr. Roxburgh followed him in this department; and to Dr. Russell, who was equally attached to botanical pursuits, and intimately connected with Kœnig, we owe the preface, and probably, under the direction of Sir Joseph Banks, the arrangement of the work.

To the preface is annexed a list of the manuscripts bequeathed by Kœnig to Sir Joseph Banks: to which are added, the letters from Iceland to Linnæus, and a list of Kœnig's memoirs in various collections. The essays already published in different volumes of Memoirs, we should wish to see together in an English dress; for many of them we know to be highly interesting.

The plants described in this volume are thirty in number; but, as these plants, though interesting to the botanist, cannot be equally so to the general reader, we shall only give some particulars relative to those which are the most useful or important.

The gyrocarpus Jacquini is not in the Linnæan system, though delineated by Gærtner. Its wood is white and light, and is preferred for rafts.

That part of the sandal-wood tree which is figured, is one of the branches; and we shall, on this occasion, express our regret, that, with the accurate botanical delineations which illustrate the present volume, some larger parts have not been drawn, to convey an idea of the habit of the tree. This wood is of three species; the red, the white, and the yellow. When it has been brought to Europe, its good qualities are lost. Indeed, the yellow sort is not highly esteemed as a medicine, even in India.

The chay root is a vegetable of great utility in the beautiful prints of the East-Indies. The management of the plantation of this biennial is copiously described, together with the tedious process of imparting a red, purple, and orange colour, by means of the roots. The length, and the generally uninteresting nature of these descriptions, prevent us from transcribing them. The Indian pencil, with which the flowers of the chintzes are drawn, is very simple: it consists of a piece of bamboo slit like a pen, with some sponge tied above the point, containing the coloured fluid, which is squeezed by the finger that holds the pen.

The root of the strychnos nux vomica is intensely bitter. It cures intermittent fevers, and the bites of snakes. The seeds are used in India to increase the intoxicating power of spirituous liquors, and in Europe, we apprehend, as an ingredient

in porter, in a proportion perfectly innocent. Dr. Roxburgh thinks, that the real *lignum colubrinum* is from a different tree, which was pointed out to him by a Telinga physician, though its species was not ascertained.

The use of the seeds of the *strychnos potatorum* is singular. They are employed to purify muddy water. The nut is rubbed against the sides of the vessel; and, in this state, the water is left to settle, when the impurities fall down, and the fluid remains above perfectly wholesome.

We lament that we have no plate to distinguish the habit of the *tectona grandis*, or the teak tree of the Telingas. The timber is light, and easily wrought; and it is, at the same time, strong and durable. It is employed for furniture, gun-carriages, and even ship-building.

The *ceropegia bulbosa* is a new plant, apparently trailing, and not unlike some of our convolvuli. It is wholly edible. The other species of *ceropegia* (*acuminata*, *tuberosa*, and *juncea*) were before undescribed. The roots, in taste, resemble a turnep.

The *periploca esculenta* is a twining perennial, with elegant flowers; but only cattle eat it. The name, therefore (that of the younger Linnaeus, in his Supplement), does not appear to have been happily chosen.

The *femicarpus anacardium* is the tree which furnishes the oriental anacardium of the shops. The chief utility of this tree, in India, is derived from the acrid juice of the shell. Almost the whole is acrid, though the receptacles of the seeds, when roasted, may be eaten safely. The juice of the shell is used externally as a highly stimulating discutient, and, internally, as an anti-venereal.

The sappan wood Dr. Roxburgh has lately discovered to be a native of the chain of mountains separating the Circars from the dominions of the rajah of Berar. It is an ingredient in the chay dye. It is also a substantive dye, imparting a cheap, but fugitive red colour. The wood itself is orange: the infusion is heightened by alkalis, and destroyed by mineral acids. A solution of tin, in aqua regia, precipitates, from the infusion, a beautiful crimson lake.

The wood of the *Swietenia febrifuga* is hard, highly bitter, and astringent; and it is found to be a good succedaneum for the Peruvian bark.

The *Gaertnera racemosa* is a garden plant, remarkable for the beauty and fragrance of its flowers.

The *bassia latifolia* is chiefly valuable for its hard strong wood. Its English name, the oil-tree, is derived from the oil which its seeds afford, fit only for burning.

The *Butea frondosa* is the plaso of Rheed, the *erythrina monosperma* of Lamarck. It affords a clear-red astringent

gum, nearly resembling the kino of the shops. Dr. Roxburgh thinks that it differs from the kino, in being less resinous; but the latter is almost wholly soluble in pure water, and the tinctures do not become turbid when water is added. The flowers are useful as a yellow dye, which may be reddened to a deep orange, or varied to a lemon colour; but these hues are not very permanent. The watery extract is superior in colour to gamboge, and has not fallen, after a year's trial. Lac insects reside on it, though no trial seems to have been made of *their* colour. The *butea superba* is truly superb: its flowers are of the most vivid beautiful tints. It is a twining plant, supported by large trees.

The wood of the *ailanthus excelsa* is light, fit only for rafts.

The bark of the *sterculia urens* is astringent; and the seeds are edible, when roasted.

The *salvadora Persica* affords a bark highly stimulant; but it is of little utility.

Poems, by J. Hucks, A. M. Fellow of Catharine Hall, Cambridge. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

MR. Hucks has already appeared before the public as a traveller through North Wales*; and the little volume which he then published contained a specimen of his poetical powers. The present volume consists of miscellaneous pieces thrown together without any methodical arrangement. The first of these, entitled the Retrospect, is a desultory poem; but the writer possesses not sufficient genius to support such a poem in blank verse. His verses, however, are not inharmonious: his language is free from the awkward inversions with which this metre has so frequently been disfigured; and, though the poem discovers not the higher charms of imagination, it does honour to the sentiments and feelings of the author.

‘ Spirit of death;

That thro’ the ranks of war dost range unseen!

O God of battles, when shall slaughter cease,

And man awake from this strange dream of life?

Will not the tears of pity, and the cries

Of countless orphans; and the shrieks of death,

Relentless power! nor even the suppliant look

Of mildly beaming mercy stay thine arm?

It were a sight that would high heaven rejoice,

If the proud victor in the awful hour

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVIII. p. 115.

Of widely wafting war ; and with the wreath
 Of glory crown'd, amid the loud acclaim
 Of warlike soldiery, flush'd with crimson pride
 Of conquest — o'er the dying and the dead,
 If haply he should cast one pitying look,
 Droop his red sword, and weep the work of death.' P. 13.

The connection of thought is not always sufficiently obvious in these pieces. Of this fault a remarkable instance occurs in the following lines.

' Was it Philip's arms
 Or Philip's gold unbarr'd the gates of Greece?
 ' Peace a poor exile from life's rocky bourne,
 Weeps in some vale obscure, and often starts,
 As the low murmurs of the distant war,
 Die on the hollow gales, and speak of death:
 While virtue sitting 'midst the wrecks of time,
 Sighs for the fall of justice and of truth.' P. 20.

The invocation to Liberty opens with strange incongruity.

' Hail thou ! that like life's genial current, flow'st
 Warm from my heart, and animat'st my frame,
 Blest liberty ! heav'n's bounteous gift to man,
 Nature's rich legacy, our charter'd right ;
 Thou dweller on the mountains ! what is life,
 Unless thou smilest on it's downward path ?
 How sweet the produce of thy hardy soil !' P. 73.

Sometimes Mr. Hucks has introduced the Alexandrine into his blank verse ; a licence altogether unnecessary and unjustifiable.

In the odes, the stanzas are too long. We wish indeed that the author had adopted a regular lyric measure, as he appears not to have known where to stop. His expressions may often be traced to Mr. Bowles ; and, in a particular instance (p. 81), there is so close a resemblance to a sonnet of that gentleman, as almost to deserve the imputation of plagiarism. Mr. Hucks, however, has shown his judgment in chusing so excellent a model.

The little poem to Hope reminded us of a certain song by a person of quality. A more favourable specimen of the smaller pieces cannot be selected than the first sonnet.

TO FREEDOM.

' On Gallia's land I saw thy faded form,
 Dim thro' the midnight mist — The rock thy bed —
 The livid lightning flash'd, and the wild storm
 Fell blasting, keen, and loud, around thy head,
 And peace sat by, and pour'd forth many a tear.

To other realms I mark'd thy mournful flight,
 While slowly bursting from the clouds of night,
 Gleam'd the pale moon upon thy blunted spear.
 Tho' exil'd still from Europe's purple plain,
 Oh! fly not, Freedom! from our happier shore;
 The tyrant's frown, or anarchy's wild train,
 Too long do Gallia's harass'd sons deplore:
 But never from old Ocean's favourite isle,
 Freedom! withdraw thy renovating smile.' P. 159.

Some poems by Mr. Heald conclude the volume. Mr. Hucks has introduced them with the partiality of friendship; but the subsequent passage will prove that his friend is not wholly destitute of poetical genius.

' Ev'n now perhaps, confronting armies meet,
 Loud roll the drums, the thundering cannons roar,
 Rocks the dire field beneath unnumber'd feet,
 And horror waves his locks bedropt with gore.

' Thro' dust in whirlwinds driv'n, inconstant seen,
 Thick flash the swords, the frequent victim falls;
 While o'er his mangled trunk, and ghastly mien,
 Hosts trampling rush, where maniac fury calls.

' Say, soldier! say, grim spectacle of pain,
 What syren lur'd thee, from thy peaceful home;
 To leave thy poor, thy small domestic train,
 For toils of arms, o'er billowy deeps to roam.

' No beams of glory cheer thy hapless lot,
 Thy name descends not to a future age,
 Impell'd to combat for thou knew'st not what,
 And urg'd to slaughter, by another's rage:

' Thy widow'd wife, thine orphan children weep,
 And beg their scanty meal from door to door,
 While gash'd with wounds, thy limbs dishonour'd sleep,
 And waste and moulder, on a foreign shore.' P. 178.

Mr. Heald appears to have written hastily.

' When scepter'd kings are hurried to the tomb,
 Woe's sable vestments nameless thousands wear;
 When worth domestic meets an early doom,
 Few are the numbers, but the grief sincere.' P. 171.

The author's meaning would have been better expressed, if he had substituted *careless* for *nameless*, in the second line, and *mourners* for *numbers* in the fourth.

Had he corrected the elegy, so obvious an emendation could not, we think, have escaped him.

On Rheumatism, and Gout; a Letter addressed to Sir George Baker, Bart. M. D. &c. By John Latham, M. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Longman.

IF an opinion were merely speculative, or if it were offered by a person whose rank and character would not contribute to disseminate error, we might analyse it with less care, or oppose it more shortly and with less anxiety. In this case, we are perhaps more particularly required to decide with attention: Dr. Latham's letter has produced an answer more than double its bulk; and other opponents will probably appear.

After a mature consideration, we think our author's opinion untenable; and, if we understand it, the explanation which he gives will at once contribute to its destruction: we say, '*if we understand it*;' for the difficulty lies so near the surface, that we are surprised it did not occur in the enunciation. He describes, in the usual manner, the gradually descending series of arteries, and the gradually ascending series of lymphatics: 'in the exquisitely fine and slender radicles of the lymphatic vessels,' he places 'the seat of rheumatism.'

'I think we may be allowed to assume it as an incontrovertible fact, that any obstacle to the free passage of a fluid through a canal, must of necessity occasion an accumulation in the several streams from which the canal is supplied; and that these also, having their current interrupted, must thereby as necessarily impede the course of the numberless rivulets which should otherwise ordinarily flow into them. And this we find universally to be the case with respect to the lymphatic system: for whatever may be the obstructing cause, every vessel immediately leading to the part obstructed must be filled, and consequently the vessels forming the next series must be also distended; a swelling and turgescence must therefore always arise in extent proportionate to the size and number of collateral and anastomosing branches which may for a certain space divert the fluid, and then circuitously convey it into the regular trunk again.'

'Every body knows what usually happens when a gland in the axilla has been so greatly enlarged (no matter from what cause) as to prevent the fluid not only from passing through it, but also by pressing upon the neighbouring lymphatics, from passing through them also; that the arm swells, and for a time remains in almost intolerable pain until the swollen gland subsides, or until the fluid finds a passage by other more indirect courses. If it be objected that the sanguiferous system is here also obstructed from the same cause, and that thence alone may arise the painful distension of the limb, I would answer, that where lymphatic glands have been cut

ent by the knife, as must be the case when in the removal of a cancerous breast they have been found to be diseased from the absorbed sanies, that then where there is no tumor, but a considerable vacuity from an actual loss of substance, an interruption takes place from the destruction of the usual passages, tumefaction is produced, and pain equally excruciating follows. When a diseased gland is extirpated from the groin, as now and then has been practised in some syphilitic cases, the leg and thigh will long afterwards continue in a painfully tumefied state, until the collateral canals shall be capable of conveying forwards the accumulated fluid. We have all of us seen, after some difficult cases of parturition, that one or both of the lower extremities have become cedematous and excessively painful during a very considerable length of time, until the lymphatic vessels of the pelvis, which have suffered by the difficulty of the labour, shall have recovered from the injury then sustained, or until others in their vicinity shall, by gradual enlargement, be fully competent to discharge their office for them. I know however that there are instances where the pain is not so great as I have generally stated it to be in the examples which I have here adduced of obstructed lymphatics; but I believe those will only be found to happen in very debilitated systems, where there must consequently also be a very diminished energy in the action of the absorbents.' P. 10.

It is obvious, that an obstruction in the small *arteries* would produce the effect here described; for the current of the blood would impact fluids, in vessels already obstructed, and extend the obstruction. The course of the lymph, however, is opposite. If an 'exquisitely fine and slender radicle' be obstructed, the active power of its immediately succeeding trunk remains, and the circulation goes on, till all the fluids, in the ascending series, are carried to the heart. If the exhalants continue to pour out more lymph, this will no more increase the obstruction, than any hydropic swelling; for, confessedly the minutest branch being obstructed, there is no *vis à tergo* to impact or increase the obstruction. This difficulty is doubly felt in the instances adduced of diseased glands; for, in these, the obstruction is felt below, from the interruption of the ascending branches; and, in these also, the *vis à tergo* operates. It is scarcely necessary to mention, on this occasion, that the obstruction of the sanguiferous system always accompanies, and increases the tumour arising from swollen glands; that, in these cases, there is no fever, or only a secondary one; and that the pain is tensive only, not the acute rack of rheumatism.

According to this system, tumour and redness must always be concomitants of the rheumatism; for the obstruction will

soon be communicated to the sanguiferous system. But, so far as our observation has extended, they are very far from being constant attendants; and swelling, in particular, is a salutary symptom, usually accompanied with an alleviation of pain, and often the fore-runner of a cure. In Dr. Latham's system, and his illustrations, the cold, the most usual cause of rheumatism, constricts the minute lymphatics, particularly round the joints, where they are more superficial; yet, in the history, and the treatment, it is expressly pointed out, that fever precedes, and that the pain often shifts from one limb to another. It is evident therefore, that, independently of the local affection from cold, a general disease of the system exists, and is the primary disorder; and, according to our author's statement, we cannot say why pain is removed, or what occasions the sudden dissolution of the impacted fluid. At least the explanation given of the metastasis is insufficient, and not entirely consonant with the system propounded.

We agree with Dr. Latham, that increased pain, in bed, is not an absolute criterion of the acute rheumatism; but his distinction between the acute and chronic state does not appear to us exact. He considers one as arising from an evident cause; the other as brought back in consequence of increased irritability by flighter and sometimes unperceived causes. In reality, the acute rheumatism sometimes degenerates into chronic, without any intermediate state; and the chronic species, far from being an inflammatory disease, is closely allied to paralysis, and seems to consist in spasm from a weakened state of the extreme arteries. The doctor indeed contends that rheumatic pains do not proceed from inflammation, because they never terminate either in suppuration or gangrene; but he might, with equal reason, contend that glands are never inflamed, because the disease terminates in scirrhus. We can only admit the argument, when he shall inform us, what renders suppuration and gangrene the necessary and only terminations of inflammation. We daily see inflammations terminate in resolution, in consequence of effusion; and the rheumatism does the same.

On the subject of the cure of the rheumatism, we have some remarks to make, though no very particular objection to offer. We are surprised that the author should consider it as indifferent to what part the pain is confined, when the remedies are to be selected. He would surely choose to increase the secretion from the neighbouring glands; at least he would find it difficult to show, that turpentine is as useful in rheumatic affections of the extremities, as in sciatica or lumbago. In consequence of his system, he is obliged to urge the relaxant method, in opposition to the stimulant; and

his attempt to evade the objection derived from the use of volatile alkali is untenable, both in a physiological and a chemical view. What would he say if he should find a sturdy robust countryman cure acute rheumatism, at its first attack, by volatile tincture of guaiacum or turpentine? He must consider it as fatal to his system; and this we have often seen. He does not approve bark in the early stage; nor can we conceive on what principle this remedy, so fashionable at present in the metropolis, can be employed. That this and other remedies act by being really present in the blood-vessels, is a position which he will not easily establish.

The gout and the rheumatism, in his opinion, are nearly related. We used to consider them as diseases essentially different. Reflection and experience, however, will often teach, if the practitioner is not wilfully blind; and we are ready to acknowledge, that we have met with cases, where each was mingled, or of that anomalous nature, in which both were distinguishable, and yet one could not be accurately separated from the other. But, in general, they are separate diseases; and the diagnosis, though sometimes not easy, is frequently to be ascertained. In Dr. Latham's view, they are related, because the same parts are chiefly affected—the vessels of the joints. We think the same, though we regard these vessels as the extreme arteries, and are of opinion that, in *acute* rheumatism, the affection is not so exclusively confined to the joints, as in regular gout.

Dr. Latham thinks the gout not hereditary, as the son often follows the habits of the father; but this opinion seems to arise from a little affectation of paradox. We have often seen the regular gout from the age of fourteen to twenty; we have seen it in boys, whose only drink has been water; and in men who have been the most sober and active from apprehension of it. Another singularity is, that a fit of the gout is not salutary. To this we would oppose, without farther argument, the general feelings of gouty men, and (may we be allowed to add?) the axiom of *married* authorities, that 'the gout repays the nurse.' That a man by abstinence and resolution may prevent the recurrence of gout, we think a position equally unfounded. Among the doubtful points of practice, we reckon the use of sedatives in the gout, when it attacks the stomach, and the external application of emollients. The former, however, must be left to the judgment of the physician: there are some cases in which they are certainly proper,

An Essay on the Gout, in which is introduced a candid Examination, and a Refutation attempted, of Dr. Latham's Principles, lately published, on this Subject; and others advanced, deduced from Facts occurring in the Author's own Case, and from his practical Experience of many Years. By George Wallis, M. D. 8vo. 4s. Sewed. Robinsons. 1798.

AS the author of this essay is himself a sufferer from the gout, it has attracted much of his attention. His chief argument against Dr. Latham's system resembles one which, we have said, lies very near the surface—that an obstruction in an incipient lymphatic cannot occasion any farther or additional obstruction, as no force in the rear can impact the fluids. He notices, with some indignation, the unguarded assertion of Dr. Latham, that to sir George Baker's judgment *alone* he will submit. We thought it rash; but reflected, that 'the children of this world are wiser than the children of light;' and we had little doubt, that the opinion of sir George upon the subject would correspond with that which we entertained.

Dr. Wallis, having adduced the opinions of the principal authors on this subject, concludes that a *fit* of the gout is occasioned by the *stimulus* of morbid matter, which, when floating in the general system, produces *sedative* power on the nervous system; that the gout, when misplaced, depends on this acrimony carried to other parts; and, when retrocedent, on debility which renders the constitution unable to fix it in the extremities. This theory so nearly approaches the common opinion (for it is the usual doctrine of systematics, joined with the sedative impressions of Dr. Cullen), that we need not offer any remarks on it. The whole has been repeatedly examined, and every step combated and defended with equal anxiety.

The second part contains directions for the management of patients in the gout, both during the fit, and in various anomalies. To our author's plans we have no material objection, if we except the application of poultices, which we have found injurious. Indeed we are not perfectly convinced, that leeches and blistering are wholly safe. The gout seems to consist in a peculiar inflammation, which must have its course; and every mode of lessening it, lessens its effects as a remedy. We do not, however, depend on reasoning alone; some disagreeable circumstances have sometimes followed these practices, which, though they may have been merely accidental, contribute to excite suspicion. The gout, Dr. Wallis thinks, is hereditary; and he combats Dr. Latham's opinion on this subject, though he agrees with that physician in

thinking that the gout is a cure for those diseases only which depend on this disorder ; in other words, that the fit only relieves the diseases, which the accumulating matter had occasioned.

The third part is on the means of lengthening the intervals between the fits ; and, as our author, in examining the predisposition, finds it to consist in a torpor (more properly a debility of the system), and, in tracing the occasional causes, thinks that they meet in the effect of increasing this torpor, his directions are deduced from these sources. He gives judicious directions, with respect to the management in every circumstance both where the constitution is less, and where it is more, debilitated : but from this part we can select nothing new or particularly interesting. The rules, relating to study, will probably suit others, besides arthritics.

‘ Study may with great numbers be said to involve both pleasurable and rational pursuits ; but study pursued to too great length becomes irrational, because it lays the foundation for disease : for the mind cannot be a long time and repeatedly employed in close contemplation but the body very sensibly feels the effects ; men often rise from close mental application as much fatigued as from the severest corporeal exercise, with this difference, that the accumulation of fluids attend the former, while dissipation is the consequence of the latter ; hence the first is more productive of a variety of mischiefs ; for the moving powers of the machine are not only rendered less active, but the constitution is surcharged with a load of humours, which ought to have been carried out of the habit ; hence arise indigestion, obstructions, languor, impeded perspiration, and a variety of other affections, which though occasioned by torpor of the moving powers, particularly the nerves, still add to that cause, and greatly assist in creating a variety of diseases, amongst the number of which gout may be esteemed one of the most certain.

‘ Intense study, therefore, should be avoided, or where study becomes indispensable, its evil effects should be counteracted or prevented.

‘ Men devoting much of their time to mental application, should employ their mornings chiefly in this way ; allowing time for properly recruiting the spirits ; when the mind appears fatigued, they should desist ; take exercise, chiefly riding, and divert their thoughts by some pleasant amusement ; eat and drink moderately of such things that best agree with them, and are easy of digestion, go to bed and rise early, and particularly keep the body free from costiveness.

‘ Immediately after dinner they should by no means have recourse to study, not till some hours afterwards, till their food is pretty well digested, and they feel themselves light and alert ;

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otherwise indigestion will be the consequence, and all its train of unfriendly associates: the same may be said of those who live in a sedentary and indolent manner; for without exercise, it is impossible for the constitution to remain long in a state of health.
P. 167.

We shall conclude this article with the doctor's concise recapitulation of his own opinions.

‘ I have said the gout was occasioned by an acrimonious humor, hereditarily or adventitiously acquired, in constitutions predisposed, or having a strong propensity to such a disposition to feel its effects; which predisposition arose from a peculiar torpor of the nervous system, producing languor, lassitude, &c. at first, and progressively uneasiness, and relaxation of the stomach, obstructions of the hepatic system, and other abdominal viscera, costiveness, and impeded perspiration, till the gouty matter was deposited upon the extremities by a law of the animal oeconomy producing pain; which pain, acting as a stimulus, is considered as an instrument of nature, to relieve the constitution from the offending cause, but which pain is increased to a degree of violence more than necessary, and made of longer duration, as well as its effects, by the continuance of some organic indispositions, occasioned by the first causes, proving themselves sources of other affections.

‘ In order to alleviate all which, purgatives and emetics are prescribed in the first instance, as deobstruents; to the last of which are ascribed a diaphoretic and general stimulant power; and where systematic debility requires them, cordial stomachics, tonics, and stimulants, as invigorators of the system and stomach, producing at the same time perspiration; by which means the constitutional embarrassments are removed, and nature left at liberty to perform her own salutary operations, in order perfectly to relieve the machine; the benefits received by which various modes are exactly similar to what are produced by Bath waters, though perhaps in some cases in a less perfect degree.’ P. 197.

A Description of the Country from thirty to forty Miles round Manchester; containing its Geography, natural and civil; Principal Productions; River and Canal Navigations; a particular Account of its Towns and chief Villages; their History, Population, Commerce, and Manufactures; Buildings, Government, &c. The Materials arranged, and the Work composed by J. Aikin, M.D. Embellished and illustrated with Seventy-three Plates. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Stockdale.

THE increase of our topographical histories is a circumstance creditable to the literary industry of the country, and

highly advantageous in facilitating an acquaintance with the natural and artificial sources of its wealth. The accumulated facts, which constitute the public history of a state, may indeed excite a profitable curiosity in mankind, and enable the philosopher to deduce conclusions, important to the political happiness of the species: it must, however, be allowed, that a considerable portion of applause is due to those modest but useful writers, who explore local annals, describe scenes dedicated to the busy pursuits of trade, and trace the progress of a country through the various gradations of manufacturing enterprise, which have conducted it to opulence and distinction.

In this point of view, the patriotic reader will experience much pleasure in perusing the present work, which relates to a district, celebrated both for its natural beauties, and for the variety and importance of its manufactures.

The original plan of the work was confined to a small district; but the extension of it is a circumstance, which will not, we apprehend, displease the public, as the task of description has been, for the most part, executed in a manner that claims approbation. The pen of the literary veteran, Dr. Aikin, while it pours, in a pleasing manner, the varieties of nature, has given, to the plodding details of trade, a lively interest.

After a rapid sketch of the landscape of the country comprehended in the description, the reader is presented with a *coup d'œil* of its various manufactures.

‘The centre we have chosen is that of the cotton manufacture; a branch of commerce, the rapid and prodigious increase of which is, perhaps, absolutely unparalleled in the annals of trading nations. Manchester is, as it were, the heart of this vast system, the circulating branches of which spread all around it, though to different distances. To the north-western and western points it is most widely diffused, having in those parts established various head-quarters, which are each the centres to their lesser circles. Bolton, Blackburn, Wigan, and several other Lancashire towns, are stations of this kind; and the whole intervening country takes its character from its relation to them. Stockport to the south, and Ashton to the east, of Manchester, are similar appendages to this trade; and its influence is spread, more or less, over the greatest part of Lancashire, and the north-eastern portion of Cheshire. Under the general head of the cotton manufacture may be comprized a variety of fabrics not strictly belonging to it, but accompanying it, and in like manner centering in Manchester and its vicinity.

‘To the north-east and east the cotton trade is soon entrenched upon by the woollen manufacture, an object, likewise, of vast importance, which extends through great part of the West Riding

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of Yorkshire, and fills its most bleak and sterile tracts with population and opulence. This has not any one common centre, but the towns of Leeds, Halifax, Bradford, Wakefield, Huddersfield, Saddleworth, and Rochdale, are each centres of particular branches and varieties of the woollen manufacture. This trade, though of older standing and slower advance than the cotton trade, and likewise rivalled in other parts of the kingdom, has, nevertheless, experienced a very rapid increase in late years. It would seem as if a hilly country was peculiarly adapted to it, since it almost ceases where Yorkshire descends into the plain.

‘ Southward of the limits of the clothing trade, our circle comprehends the town of Sheffield, so famous for its cutlery and hardware. Passing into Derbyshire it includes all the mining and mineral country of the Peak, and extends to the commercial town of Chesterfield. Staffordshire, besides other branches of manufacture, affords a most curious and valuable one, the pottery, which may be said, as a national object, to be the creation of a few years past, produced by a fortunate combination of chymical skill with taste in the fine arts. This county also participates with Cheshire in the spinning and winding of silk, which is carried on to a moderate extent in several places. Cheshire possesses another article of great importance to the national revenues,—the salt, which is obtained in inexhaustible abundance from its rock-pits and springs.

‘ Though the cotton-trade peculiarly characterises Lancashire as a commercial county, yet it has other considerable branches of manufacture; as that of sail-cloth and coarse linens, of nails, of watch tools and movements, of cast-plate and common glass. Its great port of Liverpool, the second for extent of business in the kingdom, and that which has received the most rapid increase, is also within our limits; as is, likewise, the ancient port of Chester.’
p. iii.

A succeeding portion of the work is occupied with a general account of Lancashire, Cheshire, Derbyshire, the West-Riding of Yorkshire, and the northern part of Staffordshire; and the productions of those parts of England are well described.

From this portion of the work, we will offer two extracts; one respecting the salt of Cheshire, the other concerning the lead mines of Derbyshire.

‘ The mineral product for which Cheshire is most remarkable is its salt, with which it is stored in inexhaustible quantities. It is found in the two states of solid rock, and brine springs. The first is obtained only at Northwich, where large quantities are raised, part of which is refined on the spot, and part exported in its rough state. Brine springs are met with in several places in the county, and the salt is procured from them by boiling. The ave-

large quantity of salt made annually in Cheshire is upwards of 74,000 tons, of which, as well as of the unrefined rock salt, a great proportion is exported abroad, forming a very beneficial article of commerce. That consumed at home pays a large sum to the public revenue.' P. 49.

' Veins of lead ore, on account of their position in the earth, are distinguished by the different names of *pipe*, *rake*, and *flat* works. A pipe-work lies between two measures of lime-stone regularly extending above and below. It consists of several lines or branches running nearly parallel to each other, which have a general communication by means of slender threads, or leadings, as they are called by the miners. The rock is sometimes pierced through by these leadings, which it is thought right to follow, as they often conduct to a fresh range. Should no ore be found on such a pursuit, the breadth of the work is ascertained: its length is indeterminate, depending much upon the dipping of the measures. If this be great, it begins to decline, or cannot be pursued further on account of water. The rake-vein is found in the chasms or clefts of the lime-stone, and consequently breaks through the measures and sinks into the earth. It sometimes penetrates 150 or 200 yards, generally in a slanting direction; and it has been followed to the distance of four miles from the place where it was first discovered. The flat work resembles the pipe, but has no leader or stem like that. It spreads wider, and seldom extends above 100 yards. It is also found near the surface and in the solid rock, and is very weak and poor, being seldom thicker than a man's finger.

' The veins of lead ore are generally enclosed in a yellow, red, or black soil, and are firmly connected with cauk, spar, or some other mineral. Their direction is not uniform. The pipes, never penetrating the measures, follow the dip of the country in which they are found. The rakes run still more variously; in the Hyde Peak, generally pointing east and west; in the wapentake of Wirksworth, north and south. Sometimes two veins cut each other at right angles: sometimes the pipe and rake unite and run together a short way, becoming stronger and richer. It is difficult to determine which of these two veins is most common, or most productive; the pipe, however, seem most generally valuable.' P. 76.

The 'Account of River and Canal Navigations' is very interesting. The increase of inland navigation, an object highly important to the domestic commerce of the country, may be attributed to the liberal and enterprising spirit of the duke of Bridgewater, whose perseverance overcame obstacles and difficulties, which the most sanguine projectors had thought it impossible to surmount. The account concludes with a sketch of the life of the celebrated Brindley, who as-

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sisted the duke in his projects, and whose merit, as an engineer of bold and truly original genius, will ever reflect honour on the country that gave him birth.

The detail relative to Manchester is accurate. From the historical part of it we select an anecdote, illustrative of the popular spirit of the inhabitants, and which seems to prove that the patriots, or (as some perhaps will term them) the *jacobins*, who, of late years, have distinguished themselves in that town, are lineally descended from the *roundheads* of the last century.

‘ At the breaking out of the civil war in 1642, possession was taken of Manchester in behalf of the parliament by the militia of the country, who were joined by many of the inhabitants and people of the vicinity; and fortifications were thrown up at the end of the streets. At this time the town chiefly consisted of Market-street-lane, Dean’s-gate, Miln-gate, and a few streets about the market-place. In September 1642, the earl of Derby marched from Warrington with a force of about 4000 foot and 300 horse, with seven pieces of ordnance, in order to seize upon Manchester for the king. On being refused admission, he commenced an assault upon the defenders from Salford and the end of Dean’s-gate, which proving unsuccessful, he retired after a few days. This petty attempt, in which the town is said to have lost only four men killed and as many wounded, cannot but give a contemptible idea of the state of military skill in this island at the commencement of those troubles. In the next year the town was fortified and strongly garrisoned, and it continued in the hands of the parliament during the remainder of the war.’ P. 153.

Of the remarkable increase of the population of Manchester, the following account is given within eighteen years.

‘ In 1773 a survey of Manchester was executed with accuracy, which gave the following results :

	Manchester.	Salford.	Total.
Houses (inhabited)	3402	866	4268
Families,	5317	1099	6416
Male inhabitants,	10,548	2248	12,796
Female ditto,	11,933	2517	14,450
Both sexes,	22,481	4765	27,246
Persons to a house, $6\frac{1}{3}$	To a family, $4\frac{1}{4}$		

‘ At the same period, the township of Manchester (detached from the town) contained 311 houses, 361 families, 947 males, 958 females; total, 1905.

‘ And the whole parish of Manchester, comprizing thirty-one townships in a compass of sixty square miles, contained 2371 houses, 2525 families, 6942 males, 6844 females; total, 13,786 inhabitants.

‘ The whole number, then, of inhabitants in the town, township, and parish of Manchester, and in Salford, amounted to 42,927.

‘ At Christmas 1788, the numbers by enumeration were, in the township of Manchester, 5916 houses, 8570 families, 42,821 persons; in the township of Salford, about 1260 houses. The whole number of people in both towns might then be reckoned at more than 50,000.

‘ During the year 1791, the christenings in these towns amounted to 2960; the burials to 2286. These numbers, by the usual mode of calculating, will give from sixty-five to seventy-four thousand inhabitants—an increase almost unparalleled!’ p. 156.

We afterwards meet with some curious information on the subject of the Manchester manufactures: but we cannot conveniently give an extract from this part of the volume.

The metamorphic powers exercised by commerce on the manners and habits of society, have frequently attracted the speculation of the philosopher. In the present work, the different æras of the history of the manufactures and trade of Manchester are thus, and we think not fancifully, distinguished.

‘ The trade of Manchester may be divided into four periods. The first is that, when the manufacturers worked hard merely for a livelihood, without having accumulated any capital. The second is that, when they had begun to acquire little fortunes, but worked as hard, and lived in as plain a manner as before, increasing their fortunes as well by economy as by moderate gains. The third is that, when luxury began to appear, and trade was pushed by sending out riders for orders to every market town in the kingdom. The fourth is the period in which expense and luxury had made a great progress, and was supported by a trade extended by means of riders and factors through every part of Europe.’ p. 181.

The characteristic features of these different periods are strikingly and pleasantly delineated. From the various anecdotes which are here introduced, we extract one, calculated to show that the extraordinary animal, man, is not less the creature of *custom* than of *versatility*.

‘ There now resides in the market place of Manchester, a man of the name of John Shawe, who keeps a common public house, in which a large company of the respectable Manchester tradesmen meet every day after dinner, and the rule is to call for sixpenny-worth of punch. Here the news of the town is generally known. The high change at Shawe’s is about six; and at eight o’clock every person must quit the house, as no liquor is ever served out after that hour; and should any one be presumptuous enough to stop,

Mr. Shawe brings out a whip with a long lash, and proclaiming aloud, "Past eight o'clock, gentlemen!" soon clears his house.

'For this excellent regulation Mr. Shawe has frequently received the thanks of the ladies of Manchester, and is often toasted; nor is any one a greater favourite with the townsmen than this respectable old man. He is now very far advanced in life, we suppose not much short of 80, and still a strong, stout, hearty man. He has kept strictly to this rule for upwards of fifty years, accompanied by an old woman servant for nearly the same length of time.

'It is not unworthy of remark, and to a stranger is very extraordinary, that merchants of the first fortunes quit the elegant drawing room, to sit in a small dark dungeon, for this house cannot with propriety be called by a better name—but such is the force of long established custom!' p. 188.

We commend the judicious gratitude of the Manchester ladies to this honest old *caupo*, and wish, for the sake of many 'fair married dames,' that the vintners of other great towns would treat their guests in a similar mode. Even the gentlemen would not have occasion to murmur at such regulations; for the admonitory sound of the *whip* might frequently preclude the louder and less transient expostulations of the *curtain*.

To the account of Manchester, are subjoined some particulars of the life of Mr. Byrom, who was celebrated, in his time, as a professor of short-hand; and whose sprightly poetic productions have long been relished as literary *entremets*. Another entertaining biographical sketch consists of the memoirs of that eccentric character, 'Mr. John Collier, *alias* Tim Bobbin,' who wrote some humorous pieces in the Lancashire dialect, and acted as schoolmaster, musician, and painter.

In the statement which respects the courts of law holden at Preston, we have observed several mistakes; and as the juridical part of any history is of great importance, we subjoin a *note*, more correctly and distinctly specifying the powers of the courts alluded to, and their forms of proceeding.

'Preston enjoys the advantage of being the seat of several law courts*. The duchy of Lancaster holds a court of chancery

* The chancellor of the county palatine holds a court of chancery, and has the same powers within his jurisdiction, as the lord high chancellor of Great Britain. In this court bills are filed, and causes are heard by the vice-chancellor, who is usually a gentleman of experience at the bar. The forms of proceeding are similar to those of the high court of chancery: the vice-chancellor, chief clerk, registrar, keeper of the seals, and also five clerks, are appointed to this court by the chancellor of the duchy. Original writs are

here, appointed to hear and determine all causes according to some peculiar customs held among themselves. The chancellor of the duchy is chief judge of this court, and has proper officers under him, viz. a vice-chancellor, an attorney-general, chief clerk, register and examiner, five attorneys and clerks, a prothonotary and his deputy, and clerks of the crown and peace. There is also a county court, which sits every Tuesday in the year, and issues writs which compel appearance without bail for any sum above forty shillings, and on failure of appearance execution follows. Another court is called the county arrest, whence process issues for sums under forty shillings, also without bail. Another is that of the wapentake, in process like the last mentioned, but only for the hundred of Amounderness. Writs holding to bail are issued from the prothonotary's office, upon which the sheriff grants a warrant for apprehension. Other writs are issued from this office, not holding to bail, but on serving a copy a process takes place in the common pleas. The borough court issues processes for debts up to ten pounds, which compel appearance, or, on failure of it, attach goods in execution to be sold within a limited number of days. This court can likewise send criminals to the new prison, as it takes place of the former house of correction. The quarter sessions are held at Preston by adjournment from Lancaster, on the Thursday in the week after Epiphany.' p. 284.

The account of Liverpool, its trade, docks, shipping, &c. will afford abundant gratification to the commercial reader.

'The docks' (says our topographer) 'extend along the river nearly the breadth of the town. In the centre is the Old Dock, running up a considerable way towards the heart of the town. To the west of it lies the Salthouse Dock, and the bason or dry dock, serving as the common entrance to both. These were the first constructed. To the north of these is situated George's Dock, with its dry bason, the next of these works, hollowed and

made out to the sheriff, returnable into the court of common-pleas of the duchy, which holds jurisdiction of suits within the county palatine, similar to the court of common pleas at Westminster, having a prothonotary. Upon a process issuing out of the court of common pleas, the defendant may be holden to bail, if the debt amount to 5l. and the proper affidavit be filed. The suits are tried at the assises holden by commission under the seal of the county. All writs (except that of *habeas corpus*, and serviceable process) issuing out of the superior courts at Westminster, to this county, are directed to the chancellor, or his deputy, by whom a writ is sent to the sheriff. The court of the county palatine has this advantage over the courts at Westminster, that no bailable process can be had, unless the debt amount to 20l. The county court is generally holden at the town-hall in Preston, every Tuesday four weeks. This court holds pleas of actions under 40s. without writ, in the manner of other county courts, and above 40s. by writ. It is holden before two suitors and the under-sheriff; and the causes are decided by twelve jurors of the county. REV.

embanked out of the river beach. And to the south are the newest docks, called the King's and Queen's, with one common dry bason at the entrance. The duke of Bridgewater has a small dock of his own between these and the Salthouse dock.

'The length of quay afforded by all these capacious basons, will appear on calculation to be so great, as to eclipse all the most famous of the river or shore quays in the different sea-ports; and though their magnificence of prospect is diminished, their utility is increased, by having them accumulated within a moderate compass of ground, rather than extended in one long line.

'The vast labour and expence of these works will readily be conceived by one who considers that they must all have been hollowed by hand from the shore, in continual opposition to the tides, which often in an hour destroy the labour of weeks; and that the piers must be made of sufficient height and strength to bear the daily efforts of a sea beating in, and constantly endeavouring to recover its ancient boundaries.

'On the sides of the docks are warehouses of uncommon size and strength, far surpassing in those respects the warehouses of London. To their different floors, often ten or eleven in number, goods are craned up with great facility. Government in particular has here a very extensive tobacco warehouse, occupying a large compass of ground. The space round the docks is sufficient to give room for loading and unloading, and all the occupations of the sailors, without interruption of each other, or of the crowds of passengers. Strangers may with ease drive along the quays, and enjoy the view of the busy scene without danger or inconvenience; a pleasure no where to be obtained on the river at London, where the close wharfs are absolutely inaccessible except by carts, and by them not to be approached without great obstruction. The entrance to the docks are crossed by draw-bridges, excellently constructed on the Dutch plan.

'On the west side of the North Dock, by the river side, is a pier forming a fine parade, 320 yards in length, and of considerable breadth, which is a favourite walk of the inhabitants and strangers. It commands a noble view of the harbour from the rock point or commencement of the sea, to the distance of several miles up the river, and a beautiful landscape on the Cheshire side.' P. 354.

In the additions to the work, the intentions of the merchants of this town to solicit a participation of the trade to India are thus noticed.

'In the year 1792, the growing wealth and prosperity of Liverpool had led its merchants to believe that they were possessed of sufficient capital, and that they were in other respects competent to the carrying on of a trade to the East Indies with advantage. They were the more impressed with this idea, as the merchants of

the United States of America had for some years been engaged in the same traffic, and were acquiring large fortunes in it. The approaching expiration of the East India company's charter, and the possibility of a partial or total abolition of the African slave trade, induced the merchants of Liverpool to hope that this would be a season peculiarly favourable for their application.' p. 608.

Resolutions, in support of this proposal, were voted at a meeting of the merchants and other inhabitants; but, on the eve of a war, it was not deemed expedient to prosecute the scheme. Though we are persuaded of the impolicy of monopolies of almost every kind, we cannot repress the sentiments of indignation at the hypocritical cant of the merchants of Liverpool, who, in their resolutions, condemned the rapacious and oppressive conduct of the East-India company, while, in their own extensive branch of commerce, the slave-trade, they have so long and so grossly violated the essential principles of policy and philanthropy! The directors and servants of the company have certainly been guilty of unjustifiable acts; but, in this instance, *Clodius accusat mæchos*: the Liverpool traders do not ask for justice with *clean hands*.

Of the traffic of Chester, it is observed, that

‘ it chiefly consists of the coasting and Irish trades, with a small portion of trade to foreign parts. The commodities imported are, groceries from London; linen cloth, wool, hides, tallow, feathers, butter, provisions, and other articles from Ireland; timber, deals, hemp, flax, iron, and tallow from the Baltic; kid and lamb skins from Leghorn; fruit, oil, barilla, and cork, from Spain and Portugal, and a large quantity of wine from the latter, which is the principal article of foreign import. Its exports are coal, lead, lead ore, calamine, copper plates, cast iron, and large quantities of cheese; and it is a sort of magazine for a variety of goods, raw and manufactured, sent to Ireland. From the large cheese warehouse in the river, vessels go at stated periods with loads for London. The number of ships belonging to this port, notwithstanding the above enumeration of commercial objects, is very small; yet the limits of the port extend on the Cheshire side of the Dee as far as the end of Wirral, and on the Flintshire side to the mouth of the river Clwyd. The business of ship-building is carried on here continually, and with advantage, many vessels from 100 to 500 tons being built yearly. These are reckoned to be superior in point of strength and beauty to those built at any other port in the kingdom.’ p. 391.

Other towns in Cheshire are copiously described; and, among the accounts of particular parishes in Derbyshire, we find these remarks with regard to the waters of Buxton.

' This place, situated in a hollow, among naked and dreary hills, has been favoured by nature with the possession of one of the most valuable mineral waters in this Kingdom, which has rendered it the resort of multitudes of invalids of all ranks, and has decorated it with splendid and commodious buildings.' p. 488.

' There is little doubt that the warm baths of Buxton were known to the Romans, various remains of Roman workmanship having been discovered about them. Their celebrity in the later ages is little known, our writers making little mention of them till the 16th century. Buxton was much frequented in the reign of Elizabeth, and since that period, the number of persons resorting to it, and the buildings erected for their accommodation, have been continually increasing. On a chemical analysis, the waters have been found to be lightly impregnated with mineral matter, particularly calcareous earth, sea-salt, selenite, and acidulous gas, with perhaps some other permanently elastic vapour. The baths are three in number, and their degree of heat from eighty-one to eighty-two. The water is clear, sparkling, and grateful to the palate. When drank in considerable quantity, it proves, for the most part, heating and binding. The temperature of the baths is extremely agreeable to the feeling. A slight shock is felt at the first immersion, which is succeeded by a pleasant warmth. The case in which bathing is attended with the most distinguished good effects, is chronic rheumatism, many persons every year absolutely crippled by this disorder being restored to the use of their limbs. The water is found beneficial in gouty, nephritic, and bilious disorders, and in most debilities of the stomach and bowels. In these, as usual in the administration of mineral waters, much of the benefit must be imputed to the air, exercise, and change of living.' p. 488.

The potteries of Staffordshire claim some mention. They

' commence at a village called Golden-hill, from whence to the other extremity of the pottery at Lane End, is something more than seven miles; a considerable part of which, by joining together, strikes the traveller as but one town, although under different names. The manufacturing of pottery wares is the general and nearly sole business of this extensive and very populous quarter; and from the great increase of inhabitants and houses in the last twenty years, (it being supposed that for every inhabitant or house then, there are at least three now) in all probability, the various towns and villages of Golden-Hill, New-Field, Smith-Field, Tunstall, Long-Port, Burslem, Cobridge, Etruria, Hanley, Shelton, Stoke, Lower Lane, Lane Delf, and Lane End, will ere long be so intermixed with buildings, as to form only one town and one name.' p. 516.

At one of these villages (Shelton) there is a manufactory of porcelain, which is 'very little, if at all, inferior, especially in the colours, to that of the East-Indies.'

Descriptions of Sheffield, Halifax, and some other towns of Yorkshire, occur near the close of the work.

We have now noticed the most material contents of this publication; and shall conclude with observing, that the variety and importance of its topics, the accuracy with which, upon the whole, they are treated, and the various graphic embellishments that accompany the work, will doubtless procure it a liberal extent of patronage, proportioned to the spirit with which it has been executed.

Memoirs of the House of Medici. (Concluded from Vol. XXII. p. 396.)

WE resume with pleasure the task of examining the Memoirs of the House of Medici. In the fourth chapter we find some curious details of the genius and taste of the ancient inhabitants of Etruria. The historian, artist, and antiquary, will derive much information from M. Tenhove's account of their statues, potteries, paintings, music, &c. Among the monuments of Etrurian genius, we may reckon the *cloaca maxima*.

'The Etrurians also furnished the Romans with the means of executing their principal common-shore [*sewer*] or *cloaca maxima*, under the elder Tarquin, a prince born in Etruria of a Tuscan mother, when they had made no progress in the arts, and Rome, imperial Rome was an irregular mass of cottages,

"Romuleoque recens horrebat regia culmo."

These famous reservoirs were built with a grandeur and solidity, and on such a perfect level as is astonishing both on their being first seen and on reflection. Justus Lipsius had great reason to say of them, "Ponimus cloacas inter magnifica, et sordes has inter illos splendores;" and their remains even strike with admiration an oriental imagination. They were carried by subterraneous excavations under the whole city of Rome, split into innumerable branches, which discharged themselves into the principal stream, and were wide and deep enough to admit of boats. On the side of each of these immense vaults there were passages for carts and waggons. They had openings also at certain distances to give light and air, and when it became dark, lamps were used.—It was a picture wonderfully singular.—Under the imperial city suspended in the air, people passed in carriages and her inhabitants sailed in boats.—Such public utility and magnificence were never in any

other instance so happily combined. Perhaps of every construction in the world it was the most extraordinary that was ever undertaken, and the Egyptian cryptes which were sepulchres, and according to Pausanias and Ammianus Marcellinus sunk 160 feet below the pyramids under the bed of the Nile, were not equal to it.' Vol. i. p. 261.

Some interesting anecdotes of their ancient painters and sculptors, with remarks on their respective merits, occur in this chapter. After recording the crimes that too often pollute the pages of history, but more particularly the annals of Italy, the author returns to the arts and sciences. Lorenzo de' Medici, at this period, forms a conspicuous figure, not only as the restorer of peace to Italy, but as the illustrious patron of men of letters. The famous Platonic academy, the university of Pisa, and the Laurentian library, are particularly mentioned as the monuments of his liberality. The account of the invention of prints will not, we think, displease our readers.

'The invention of prints, or copper-plates, was then a new discovery. Maso Finiguerra, a Florentine, the father of this art, which gives an eternity beyond the power of the pencil, usually traced impressions on clay, instead of wax, of the subject he intended to engrave on silver. With the assistance of melted sulphur poured into his mould, and rubbing it with oil and foot, he soon arrived at the method of taking off what he had engraved on his silver; and at last, by moistening his paper, and the addition of a roller, he succeeded in such a manner that his figures not only appeared as if they had been printed, but even drawn by the hand. This discovery produced us engraved prints, by which the pictures of the first masters became accessible to the public, and it has been gradually improving. Finiguerra had not the meanness to be jealous of his art, or make a mystery of his experiment, and he had no sooner communicated them than Baccio Baldini and Antonio Pollajuoli contrived to imitate, and even improve on them. They were not the masters, however, who were the most celebrated in the art, and this honour was not reserved for Tuscany.

'Vasari has been principally followed in what has been said on the subject of the invention of copper plates, or prints, and his opinion has been since confirmed by Filippo Baldinucci, in his *Lives of the Painters*, and the senator Buonarroti, in the preface to his "*Observations on the Medals of Cardinal Carpegna's Cabinet*." This origin of prints was not indeed disputed till monsieur Mariette, a learned modern connoisseur, thought proper to throw some doubts on it.—His Pyrrhonism rests on negative presumption.—Not a single print, he asserts, has been produced, after the most minute inquiries and laborious researches, with either the

name or cypher of Maso, though there have been a few of Pollajuoli and Botticelli. There is not one in the magnificent collection of the late prince Eugene, that monsieur Mariette classed in person, nor in the cabinet of the late French king, one of the most complete in Europe, and richer than any other in prints of the first or earliest masters. The chevalier Gaburri has likewise carefully examined every collection at Florence with the same ill success. An ancient engraving has been only found of the combat of Hercules with the Lernaean hydra, at the bottom of which there are the letters I. F. S. which, read from right to left, may signify "Thomas Finiguerra incidit," but when there is a bare possibility, all argument can be only founded on conjecture.

' An old edition of Dante, printed by Nicola della Magna, is full of prints, and they have been suspected to have been Finiguerra's; though if they had been engraved by the obscure process described by Vasari, they would have been much more coarse and ordinary. Exclusive of this circumstance, Vasari attributes these prints to Sandro Botticelli, and according to the chevalier Gaburri, on a view of the picture of this master at the Annunciation at Florence, the resemblance is so very striking as to identify the artist. The learned abbé Antonio Maria Salvini assures his readers there is another edition of Dante, which has its margin filled with prints, and the chevalier Gaburri believes he is in possession of a few of its leaves. "The figures," he observes, "without a name, without a cypher, and without a date, are as bad and coarse as it is possible for them to be, and they appear to have been struck off in the infancy of the art; from which circumstance Maso Finiguerra may probably have been the author. Yet this must be still conjecture." One observation may be made, that the names of the artists began but to be introduced when the art was multiplied and the masters numerous. Whilst there was only a single artist of the kind, without a rival or a predecessor, it was not necessary to authenticate his works either by his name or cypher. The French connoisseur also, though he has doubted of Finiguerra's invention, has not mentioned any other person that has a right to the honour, and speaks only in a vague manner of some German prints of an earlier date than any he had seen in Italy.—If Maso Finiguerra is not however to be allowed to have invented copper-plates, he was an excellent goldsmith and engraver in the time of Lorenzo de' Medici, and in the Florentine gallery a great collection of his designs may yet be seen.' Vol. i. p. 373.

Though we have already given copious extracts from this work, we cannot forbear transcribing part of the author's masterly sketch of the character of Catharine de' Medici.

' During the thirty years she governed France, like the treacherous female of Archilochus, who held a pitcher of water in one hand and a fire-brand in the other, she created public dissensions,

and appeased them as often as she pleased. Her remedies, however, were sometimes only perfidious palliatives, which in the end increased the fever, and aggravated the inflammation. Her ambition was of the most flagitious species—peaceable authority was beneath her notice—she had tranquillity in horror—storms and tempests were the first pleasures of her life—and if Providence had given her a world to govern, she would soon have reduced it to a chaos.

‘ There is not probably a contrast more striking than the picture traced by a Florentine poet of the happiness of the French monarchy under Francis the 1st, and its deplorable state, if not its total subversion, under Catherine’s administration.

‘ Notwithstanding Catherine’s infernal resolution, attentive eyes have not failed to perceive sometimes a tremulous vibration in her conduct.—It was not uniform.—At some moments she boldly crowded all her sails, and stretched out to a vast distance on the ocean—at others she steered for land with equal and astonishing rapidity.—Her steps like those of the tigress, bathed in blood, were quick and sudden, and she moved with starts and bounds.—Blood she often spilt from passion and revenge, but oftener from the severity of her atrocious system, in which she considered cruelty to be necessary.—Undoubtedly she saw the blood stream from the executioner with unconcern and insensibility, but to suppose she found an amusement in it is to substitute a figure of rhetoric for truth.—A character of this horrid kind is not indeed ideal, yet, for the honour of humanity it has been very rare, and only one execrable assassin has existed, the diabolical Rafiat, who asked his judges with a malignant grin, “ if they were not ignorant of the pleasure of seeing the convulsed eye of a dying person.”

‘ As Catherine’s barbarity was founded on principle, and her perverted understanding approved of the ferocity of her heart, she did not forget to transmit, as far as she was able, the same impression to her children.—Nothing, perhaps, discovers more clearly the blackness of her soul than the education which she gave them.—Battles of animals of various kinds, in which they tore each other to pieces, were their favourite recreations, and she attended in person with them at the private torture and public execution of criminals.—What the bloody amusement of her savage theatre had given them a taste for, the spectacles at the Grève completely finished.—These abominable seeds fructified particularly with Charles the IXth. The lessons and examples that had been given him entirely depraved the energetic but equivocal disposition he had received from nature, and his education rendered him nearly as cruel and ferocious as his mother.—Papire Masson relates that one of his greatest pleasures was to knock down pigs and asses, and that one of his courtiers, surprising him engaged sword in hand with his own mule, very gravely asked him “ what had happened between his most Christian majesty and his mule?” Vol. ii. p. 316.

The prominent features of the second volume are, the account of Leo X.—the sketch of the origin and progress of the reformation,—anecdotes of Machiavel, of Michael Angelo, or (according to the modern orthography) Michelagnolo, and Guicciardini,—and memoirs of Catharine de' Medici. The last-mentioned part of the volume nearly assumes the form of a well-connected history of the sway of Catharine. The anecdotes of Michelagnolo, also, which are collected chiefly from Vasari and Condivi, will be read with pleasure, as well as the catalogue and judicious estimate of his different pictures, and other productions. The progress of poetry in Italy is traced with accuracy; and, in examining the merits of various writers, M. Tenhove has in general displayed the taste and judgment of a sound, impartial critic.

For reasons that have been candidly stated by sir Richard Clayton, these memoirs cannot be expected to have that regular, well-digested form, which is desirable, and which they would, perhaps, have had, if the author had lived to complete his design. Sometimes an article is dropped, and then resumed. The thread of historical narration is sometimes unnecessarily broken; and biographical anecdotes, as well as critical remarks, might, in a few places, have been better arranged. On some occasions, also, M. Tenhove has been too diffuse (particularly on Ficino and his commentaries); and, on others, reasonable curiosity is not fully gratified. We do not scruple, however, to recommend these memoirs to the notice of the public, as containing a valuable treasure of historical, critical, and biographical learning.

Of the translation it may be said, that the style is not contemptible, and that it has few Gallicisms, inversions of phrase, or other peculiarities, indicative of the source from which it flows. The few notes which sir Richard Clayton has added are judicious, and are offered with that candour which distinguishes a gentleman and a scholar; and he has made a proper use of Mr. Roscoe's late valuable work, without borrowing too freely, or subjecting himself to the imputation of plagiarism.

There are several vignettes and heads of illustrious men, which, from their inferior merit as engravings, can scarcely be deemed ornaments. A copious index is added, and we wish that a running chronology had accompanied the work. It would have given precision to the text, and is always of considerable assistance to the memory. Sir Richard also, we think, should have translated every original document and quotation which he has introduced into the text, in common justice to the English reader.

ΑΡΙΣΤΟΤΕΛΟΥΣ ΠΕΠΛΟΣ, *five Aristotelis Epitaphia in Heroas Homericos: Fragmentum ab H. Stephano primum editum, nunc pluribus auctum Epitaphiis, partim nuper editis, partim nunc primum è Codice Harleiano.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. White. 1798.

THIS is a republication of Aristotle's Peplus, enriched with the additional embroidery of three unpublished inscriptions from a MS. in the Harleian collection, by that excellent Greek scholar Thomas Burgess, prebendary of Durham, from whose pen we have an elegant and appropriate dedication of the work to the celebrated Heyne. We observe with concern more typographical errors, corrected or uncorrected, than will readily be conceded either to dormant attention, or human infirmity, in so short a performance; but we were much gratified with the disuse of the Greek accents, of which none of the pedantic advocates and employers have ever yet been, or ever will be, able to point out the necessity or the utility. Referring the reader to the preface for a brief history of the Peplus, we proceed to make a few critical remarks, which, we trust, will not be unacceptable, either to the public, or to the ingenious and learned editor.

In the first epigram we observe Κηφισσω with a double *sigma*; but we regard a single *sigma* as preferable.

In the third epigram, instead of

Ενθαδε ΤΩΝ Λοκρων ἡγήτορα γαῖα κατέσχευ—,

a manuscript gives ΤΟΝ Λοκρων • which is unquestionably genuine, and should have been adopted in the text. The author's purpose required an emphatical designation of the hero himself, not of his countrymen.

In the sixth epigram, Αρετα and Απατα should have been distinguished as *persons*: the third verse is deformed by an error of the press, very unpleasant in so beautiful a poem; and ὡς παρ' is a reading of better authority than οὐνεκ'. On ver. 4. Mr. Burgess says: 'Εμευ. Sic MS. Harl. Vulg. εμευ.' So Brunck indeed has given; but Stephanus and Brodæus, and perhaps other editors, have given εμευ.

In the eighth epigram, correspondence requires *ιεση* • not *ιερα*.

Αργειος Σθενελος Καπανηϊος ὦΔΕ τεθαπται
Τυμβῳ.—Epig. ix.

This we consider as harsh and inelegant. We would therefore read

ΑΡΓΕΙΟΣ ΣΘΕΝΕΛΟΣ ΚΑΠΑΝΗΟΣ ΤΩΔΕ τεθαπται
ΤΥΜΒΩ, και —.

ΟΛΕΙΟΣ, ω Μενελαε, συ τ' αθανατος και αγηρως,
Εν μακαρων νησοις —. Epig. xii.

This position of τ' is vicious, and unexampled in Greek authors, with intent to combine *αθανατος* and *αγηρως*. We might write *κ'αθανατος*: but we prefer another method with a better punctuation:

Ολβιος, ω Μενελαε· συ Δ'αθανατος και αγηρως —,

or without a comma at *ολβιος*. On this occasion, we may restore a corrupted passage in Theocritus, idyll. xii. 18.

Ει γαρ τϋτο, πατερ Κρονιδη, πελοι· ει γαρ αγηρω
Αθανatoi—.

Read *Κ'αθανatoi*: for, as the words so distinguished are in Homer, and have been taken from him by many succeeding writers, so we presume no example of the phrase, without the intervention of the conjunction, can be produced.

The fourteenth epigram is thus erroneously exhibited:

Νεστορα των Πυλιων ηγητορα ηδε θανοντα
Γη κατεχει, βελη φερτατον ημιθεων.

The *των* seems to be a typographical oversight. The hiatus at the close of the fourth foot of the first verse, notwithstanding the aspirate that follows, we deem inadmissible. The reading also of Eustathius, in the second verse, appears far preferable to that which is here given. We will venture to propose this restoration of the distich as highly probable:

Νεστορα ΤΟΝ Πυλιων ηγητορα, ΤΗΔΕ θανοντα,
Γη κατεχει, βελη φερτατον ΗΜΕΡΙΩΝ.

In the seventeenth epigram, both the early introduction and the unusual position of τ' — *Αρχος τ'Αμφιμαχος* — might have suggested to an editor a suspicion of corruption; especially as one manuscript furnishes a various reading, *αρχων*. There were *two* heroes of this name. Probably, therefore, we should read,

ΑΡΓΕΙΟΣ Αμφιμαχος —.

The shortening of a diphthong in a proper name, when a vowel follows, will form no objection in a poem of this kind.

The open vowel in the eighteenth epigram —

— — — δωμ' Αϊδαο εβαν —

may possibly be excused by the proper name; but we by no means can believe this to be the true reading, and should prefer *δωμ' ΑΙΔΕΩ ΕΒΑΤΗΝ*· or *δωμ' εβαν ΑΙΔΕΩ*, by a transposition.

The editor gives a most strange and forced interpretation of the second verse of the twenty-eighth epigram, to our great astonishment:

‘Ηδ’ ιερα νησος Ποντιας αμφις εχει.

The meaning of *αμφις εχει* is simply that of *περιεχει*, *habet*, *continet*.

It is surprising that he should have overlooked a most conspicuous error in the thirtieth epigram. The verse should thus be written :

Ὅν κτανεν ΟΞΥΣ Ἀρης Ἑκτορος ἐν παλαμαῖς.

Apposite examples may be found in Homer ; and *ωκως* and *οξυς* have been frequently confounded.

He has destroyed the effect of the thirty-ninth epigram by a vicious application of a comma in the former verse.

In the forty-eighth epigram, for *Πασιν απαγγελω*, propriety and ease of construction demand *ΠΑΣΙ Δ' απαγγελω* —.

Καρες και Λυκιοι βασιλεις —.

We wish the editor had condescended to give us some information respecting these *Carian and Lycian* KINGS. Nothing is so plain and easy as the restoration of this verse :

Καρες και Λυκιοι ΒΑΣΙΛΗ, Σαρπηδονα διον—.

H, as usual, became EI, by separation ; and attracted the first letter of the succeeding word.

Κυπριδος Αινειαν τε και—Epig. liii.

Mr. Burgess says, ‘MS. Harl. Αινειαν Κυπριδος και Αγχ—Verborum mutavi ordinem metri gratiâ.’ But the transposition is as unjustifiable as the reason which he assigns is ill-founded. Has he forgotten Theocritus, epig. xiii. 1. ?

Ἡ ΚΥΠΡΙΣ & πανδημος —.

The poet indubitably gave,

Αινειαν, ΚΥΠΡΙΔΟΣ ΤΕ και Αγχιστ φιλον υιον—.

We cannot applaud Mr. Burgess's efforts on the fifty-seventh epigram. In the second verse, out of the variations *Αιπυν εσαθρεις* — *αιπυν και εραθρησω* — *αθρησοντα* — he makes, by a very bold and unnecessary transposition, *Εισαθρεις αιπυν*. His first attempt, *Αιπυν εσαθρησον*, is much more modest and simple, but fails in a smooth construction. We would write, with trivial alteration,

Αιπυν ἸΝ' ΕΙΣΑΘΡΗΣ συμβον Αμαζονιδος.

Upon the whole, as the original poems themselves are extremely insignificant, if we except only from this sentence the epitaph on Ajax, so this edition of them, all things considered, is not entitled to much applause ; and it cannot add even a single sprig to that ivy-wreath, with which the brow of Mr. Burgess is encircled. We heartily wish to see this very learned editor engaged in some work more worthy of his talents and

exertions; and are sorry that such abilities, seconded by such ample opportunities and so much leisure, should continue unoccupied by some laborious and important undertaking. Mr. Burgess is not one of those unblest scholars, whose hours are engrossed by a conflict with every species of untoward circumstance; or whom experience has taught to feel, in the bitterness of anguish, the truth of Pindar's observation:

Φαντι δ' ἐμμεν
Τὰτ' ἀναροτατον·
Καλα γινωσκοντ', ἀναγκη
Ἐκτος εχειν ποδα.

Sermons, by Hugh Blair, D. D. F. R. S. Ed. &c. Vol. IV. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.*

THE character of Dr. Blair's sermons may, in some measure, be ascertained from the general approbation with which they have been received. The present volume will not detract from the reputation which he acquired by his former publications of the same kind. Always pleasing, the author insinuates himself into the affections of his readers; and, without labouring to flash conviction, and draw tears from the sinner by sublime flights or pathetic addresses, he contents himself with the calm and elegant description of manners, and with moral observations founded on the scriptures. This style of writing and preaching may, from the great authority of the writer, be injurious to the eloquence of the pulpit. A congregation will become fastidious; and the young divine, while he is forming his style on such a model, will endeavour to obtain the applause of his auditors, by well-turned periods, rather than by that sound doctrine, which, by being continually inculcated on them, may produce a due effect on their minds and behaviour.

Two styles of preaching now prevail, for each of which there are many respectable advocates. On the one hand, the peculiar doctrines of christianity are made the theme of every discourse, though a greater emphasis is laid on the terrors of a future life than on the appropriate character of God in the new dispensation, as a tender father and a God of love. The discourses of this class of preachers are filled with metaphysical distinctions concerning faith, predestination, grace, the trinity, the atonement, everlasting flames, &c. and, the moral virtues being comparatively disregarded, it seems to be the great aim of these divines to make their hearers good disputants upon the most intricate points of theology. Eager to avoid this mode of preaching, other ecclesiastics run into the contrary extreme; and employ themselves almost entirely in the eluci-

* See Crit. Rev. Vol. XLIV. p. 100; Vol. XLIX. p. 275; and Vol. LXL. p. 483.

dation of morality. Their sermons, therefore, for the most part, are as well calculated for the disciples of Confucius, or the admirers of heathen ethics, as for the votaries of christianity. In this island, the two classes to which we allude may in general be distinguished by the church to which they belong. In the latter class are the members in general of the established churches of England and Scotland, though lately in England many of the clergy, who arrogate to themselves the title of evangelical preachers, adopt the principles and the style of preaching of the former class. To the first-mentioned class belong two great bodies in both parts of the island: in England they are called Methodists, in Scotland Seceders; and an accurate observer of human nature will perceive at once, that such a schism is the inevitable effect of an established church.

The preachers of the establishment, secure in the possession of certain emoluments, look for advancement, not to the people, but to the superior orders of the state; and those doctrines and that style which might make them highly acceptable to the people, would diminish their estimation among the higher ranks. To be a popular preacher, will seldom lead to preferment; and, if it should, the popularity and zeal of the preacher rarely continue. It is not so with the divines of the other class. Their emoluments, their distinction, their elevation in society, depend on the increase of their congregations. They must rouse the sinking soul; they must appall the boldness of guilt; they must terrify the sinner on the first approaches of the enemy. The materials upon which they work not being of so fine a texture, they must use plain homely striking language; language, which all can understand, with sentiments which every man may appropriate to himself. Hence, the present discourses, to which the principal inhabitants of Edinburgh listened with rapture, would be entirely neglected at the chapel in Spa-fields, the tabernacle, or the meetings of the seceders.

It may be asked, whether there is not a possibility of uniting the advantages of both classes, and removing the inconveniences attendant on each. This purpose, we think, might be effected; and a great improvement in the knowledge and morals of Christians would be the consequence. Let the preacher of each attend occasionally the religious meetings of the other class: let him observe, what it is that fills the benches of one, and empties the pews of the other. Let not the one treat with contempt the popular preacher, nor let the evangelical despise entirely the moral discourses and elegant language of his brethren. Let both pay a greater attention to the scriptures; the one not confining himself to an explication of the difficulties in the writings of St. Paul, nor the other to an

illustration of the proverbs of the Jews, or of the moral sayings of our Saviour. The scripture is an immense field, out of which may be drawn every thing that is useful for sound knowledge: but every thing should have its turn; and perhaps a simple regulation of the last century might tend to invigorate the zeal of the members of the established church. The first James and Charles required, from the preachers in the universities, the disuse of written sermons: but they were, at length, again brought into use, and a consequent languor gradually gained possession of the church. If this regulation were again established; if no one should be permitted to carry his discourse in writing into the pulpit, and if encouragement were given at court to those who excel in extemporaneous preaching, the eloquence of the pulpit might be restored. A written discourse may amuse the head; but, to affect the heart, the preacher must speak from the heart.

To correct the failing into which the mere moral preachers, as they are called, are apt to fall, a very small degree of attention seems to be necessary. The heathens had their doctrine of another life as well as Christians: they were incited to virtue by the hopes of future reward; they were deterred from vice by the fear of future punishment. When a preacher therefore finds that every thing which he has advanced might have come equally well from a pagan priest, he may be assured that his discourse is defective, and that he has not given that zest to his precepts, which would have been derived from the scriptures. We might point out some instances in the volume before us, if we did not think that the same remark would occur to every reader; but we may here observe, that the preacher must not only attend to the whole of his discourse, to make it fully consistent with christianity; he must also select a text appropriate to the subject which he proposes to discuss. A remarkable failure in this respect occurs in the ninth sermon, in which the writer's topic is 'our present ignorance of the ways of God.' The scriptures have many sentences to this purport: but, by an improper choice, the preacher enfeebles the whole, and loses the opportunity of exciting his hearers to attain a virtue of far greater importance to them than mere knowledge.

' John xiii. 7. Jesus answered and said unto him, What I do, thou knowest not now; but thou shalt know hereafter.' p. 178.

The *hereafter* in this text was within a few minutes afterwards; the *hereafter* in the discourse refers to knowledge in future life. The precept of our Saviour in that part of the gospel, exemplified by his own practice, is highly important to Christians, though it is by the greater part strangely neglected. On this the preacher should have dwelt with energy;

and when we think of the love and condescension of our Saviour in this instance, the trite remarks in this discourse must appear languid and unimpressive.

As most of our readers may be supposed to be well acquainted with our author's style, we shall be the less anxious in the selection of our extracts. In an elegant discourse or essay on the inconsistency of human affairs, the following paragraph will strike those who have noted the changes within only the last twenty years.

‘ But to historical annals there is no occasion for our having recourse. Let any one, who has made some progress in life, recollect only what he has beheld passing before him, in his own time. We have seen our country rise triumphant among the nations; and we have seen it also humbled in its turn. We have seen in one hemisphere of the globe new dominions acquired, and, in another hemisphere, our old dominions lost. At home, we have seen factions and parties shift through all their different forms; and administrations, in succession, rise and fall. What were once the great themes of eager discussion, and political contest, are now forgotten. Fathers recount them to their children as the tales of other times. New actors have come forth on the stage of the world. New objects have attracted the attention, and new intrigues engaged the passions of men. New members fill the seats of justice; new ministers the temples of religion; and a new world, in short, in the course of a few years, has gradually and insensibly risen around us.’ P. 256.

Having shown the inconstancy of some things, our author proceeds to show us three which are unchangeable,—virtue, God, heaven. The first topic he begins in the following manner:

‘ First, Virtue and goodness never change. Let opinions and manners, conditions and situations, in public and in private life, alter as they will, virtue is ever the same. It rests on the immovable basis of Eternal Truth. Among all the revolutions of human things it maintains its ground; ever possessing the veneration and esteem of mankind, and conferring on the heart, which enjoys it, satisfaction and peace. Consult the most remote antiquity. Look to the most savage nations of the earth. How wild, and how fluctuating soever the ideas of men may have been, this opinion you will find to have always prevailed, that probity, truth, and beneficence, form the honour and the excellency of man. In this, the philosopher and the savage, the warrior and the hermit, join. At this altar all have worshipped. Their offerings may have been unseemly. Their notions of virtue may have been rude, and occasionally tainted by ignorance and superstition; but the fundamental ideas of moral worth have ever remained the same.’ P. 264.

This passage, we fear, will not stand the test of criticism. The honour and excellency of man have been very differently estimated in various ages, and by different nations; and, as it is true, that God seeth not as man seeth, so with God virtue is unchangeable; while with man it assumes a variety of appearances, which indicate the weakness of his nature.

But, if our author is not always accurate in his expressions, his sentiments are those of an enlarged mind. Thus he shows to us, in another discourse, that the fickle opinions, which different ages entertain of virtue, ought not to guide a man of religious principle.

‘The most excellent and honourable character which can adorn a man and a Christian, is acquired, by resisting the torrent of vice, and adhering to the cause of God and virtue against a corrupted multitude. It will be found to hold in general, that all those, who, in any of the great lines of life, have distinguished themselves for thinking profoundly, and acting nobly, have despised popular prejudices, and departed, in several things, from the common ways of the world. On no occasion is this more requisite for true honour, than where religion and morality are concerned. In times of prevailing licentiousness, to maintain unblemished virtue, and uncorrupted integrity; in a public or a private cause, to stand firm by what is fair and just, amidst discouragements and opposition; despising groundless censure and reproach; disdaining all compliance with public manners, when they are vicious and unlawful; and never ashamed of the punctual discharge of every duty towards God and man;—this is what shows true greatness of spirit, and will force approbation even from the degenerate multitude themselves. “This is the man,” their conscience will oblige them to acknowledge, “whom we are unable to bend to mean condescensions. We see it in vain either to flatter or to threaten him; he rests on a principle within, which we cannot shake. To this man you may, on any occasion, safely commit your cause. He is incapable of betraying his trust, or deserting his friend, or denying his faith.” P. 414.

The essay on *ennui*, or weariness of life, may be read with advantage by the higher classes; yet, in some places, we cannot entirely agree with the writer.

Our ‘sympathy will be proportioned to the degree in which we consider them [the unfortunate] as free from blame in the misfortunes which they suffer. As far as, through their own misconduct and vice, they have been the authors to themselves of those misfortunes, we withdraw our pity. The burthen which they have brought on themselves we leave them to bear as they can; and with little concern we hear them exclaim that their *souls are weary of life*. Not only so, but even in cases where calamities have fallen on the innocent, to the pity which we feel for them will be joined a secret

contempt, if we perceive that together with their prosperity, their courage and fortitude have also forsaken them. To abandon themselves to dejection carries no mark of a great or a worthy mind. Instead of declaring that his *soul is weary of his life*, it becomes a brave and a good man, in the evil day, with firmness to maintain his post; to bear up against the storm; to have recourse to those advantages which, in the worst of times, are always left to integrity and virtue; and never to give up the hope that better days may yet arise.' P. 13.

The Christian sympathises with every object in distress: if sin has brought down his brother, his great aim is, like that of the Samaritan in the parable, to pour wine and oil on the festering wound.

In a work which has so few blemishes, it would be invidious to point out occasional Scoticisms, or small improprieties of diction. If we consider the volume as a collection of essays rather than of sermons, we must allow that it has great merit, and that it is worthy of an author who has been justly ranked with our most distinguished ethical writers.

The Columbiad: an Epic Poem, on the Discovery of America and the West-Indies by Columbus. In Twelve Books. By the Rev. James L. Moore, Master of the Free Grammar School in Hertford, Herts. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.

THE discoveries of Columbus, important as they have proved to mankind, do not form a proper subject for an epic poem. They want the unity which such a work requires. The great object is accomplished on the first discovery of land: the mutiny of Roldan, the rapacity of the Spaniards, and the ingratitude of the Spanish court, are interesting as historical facts; but nothing can be more unfit for heroic poetry. In the whole American history, the only event that could with propriety be so narrated is the conquest of Mexico; a subject which, in the hands of a Spaniard of sufficient genius, might be formed into a noble poem.

The Columbiad opens with the wreck of the admiral's vessel off the island of Hispaniola; a circumstance occasioned by the agency of the evil passions. The erection of a fort in that island, and the admiral's return to Europe, are the subjects of the first book. In the two following books, Columbus relates the history of his voyage to the king of Portugal. In the fourth, he goes to the Spanish court, and returns to Hispaniola. The settlement of the colony at Isabella occupies the fifth. The Almighty commands the angel Raphaël to give Columbus a description of the new world, and an account of

governor Penn, general Wolfe, and the falls of Niagara: these instructions to the angel fill the sixth book. Columbus sets sail from Isabella to prosecute his discoveries; he comes to the mouth of the Orinoco, where a spirit rises, and relates to him, in two long and dull books, the history of the American war. The insurrection of the Indians, the mutiny of Roldan and its suppression, and the return of Columbus to Spain, take up the remainder of the poem, which concludes with his giving a full account of his conduct to Ferdinand and Isabella, and receiving their approbation.

The story of Achæmenides is imitated in the fourth book. It is curious, that, in the *Conquista di Granata* of Gratiani, Columbus relates an episode borrowed from the same story. The Italian writer is the more absurd of the two; the English one the more dull.

The spirit of the Orinoco was probably suggested to Mr. Moore by the genius of the cape in Camoens; but there is no reason for his rising, no useful purpose answered or intended by his prophecy.

The long and heavy details of future events, introduced in this poem, reminded us of the *Vision of Columbus*. Here, however, they are unnecessarily introduced; there they are the business of the work; and, though Joel Barlow is not a great poet, yet, when compared with Mr. Moore, he rises into respectability.

It is of little import from what part we extract; but we will give the following passage as a specimen.

‘ A plain there is of greatest length, and wide,
Extending several miles from side to side;
Of open surface and of level site,
And well adapted for the war by night;
Its name was Vega Real, here their stand
And station took the native Indian band:
Columbus seiz’d the moment to assail
The foes, and of their ignorance avail;
The thund’ring engine spreads its dire alarms,
And fire tremendous issues from their arms;
The Indians, fill’d with terror and dismay,
To some safe refuge take their rapid way;
But ere they reach in flight the distant glade,
Befriended by the night’s obscurest shade,
The cavalry pursue with vehement force,
And with impetuous swiftness stop their course;
The Spanish mastiffs, in their nature bold,
And urg’d to fierceness seize with greedy hold,
And pull the trembling victims to the ground,
While mournful cries thro’ neighb’ring fields resound;

Th' unnumber'd dead distress the feeling eyes;
 The dying melt the heart with piteous sighs;
 While crowds of pris'ners drag the captive chain;
 And pour their vows their freedom to regain;
 The few that under shelter of the night
 To woods remote securely took their flight;
 Oppress'd with grief, abandon'd to despair,
 Beat their sad breasts, and raging tore their hair;
 Unstrung their bows, their poison'd arrows broke,
 And bent reluctant to the Spanish yoke.
 The hatchet and the spear were thrown away,
 Their martial ardour hasten'd to decay;
 So unexpected rag'd the Spanish sword,
 Such sudden vengeance on the Indians pour'd;
 Like the quick flash of light'ning through the sky
 Darts and portends the brooding tempest nigh;
 And oft begins the wide destroying storm,
 Which soon unite, and nature's works deform.
 Columbus, now triumphant o'er the plain,
 Interr'd the bodies of the numerous slain;
 The Indians thus dispers'd, no daring foes
 Rise up rebellious, or his pow'r oppose;
 With chosen troops he marches through the isle,
 And sev'ral days surveys the various soil;
 Frequents their towns, and to the Spanish sway
 Subjects, and gives them orders to obey.' P. 357.

The author has sometimes made the first line of a couplet an Alexandrine; as,

' Alas! in undistinguish'd mass our comrades lie,
 No frail memorial calls the passing sigh.' P. 149.

But it is unnecessary to point out trifling errors in a work so contemptible. We may add, that, besides being one of the dullest books we ever remember, it is, with little reason, one of the dearest.

Zoonomia; or, the Laws of Organic Life. (Continued from Vol. XXII. p. 407.)

IN the medical portion of this work, we do not perceive any particular traces of arrangement; for the order of the sections may be altered with little detriment to the general consistency, and they may rather be considered as detached physiological essays. We shall, however, follow the order of the writer.

The first subject is the circulatory system; and glandular

secretion follows. Dr. Darwin has given an enlarged definition of a gland, including every complicated organ which has an entrance, a cavity, and an excretory vessel; for which reasons the lacrymal sac, the stomach, &c. are styled and considered as glands. When he observes that an irritation of the nasal duct will produce tears, he seems not to be aware that they are occasioned only by the irritation being communicated along the membrane to the real gland, not by any action of its own; for neither is the blood brought to the lacrymal sac, nor is the change from blood to tears elaborated in it. Secretion is performed by what he terms glandular appetency, or the agreeable sensation attendant on the approach of some particles which are attracted, while different kinds are repelled. If the fact had been mentioned, that the smaller vessels of the body are occasionally stimulated by fluids or substances which have no influence on other vessels, it might have been easily supported; but to raise an archæus in every vessel, to distinguish and admit, or reject, is at best hypothetical, and an hypothesis of no advantageous tendency.

When he speaks of inflammation, he affirms that a torpor precedes. This is not generally true, but can be admitted only of those internal inflammations, which arise from general disease, particularly gout. The affection of the stomach, which precedes gout, may certainly in some degree be styled torpor; but this term is too general, and otherwise appropriated.

In the whole section relating to the stomach and intestines, our author dwells more on the inversion of the lacteals and biliary ducts, than on their more common or obvious functions. When the eyes become yellow, for instance, from a fright, or other causes, the motions of those ducts are supposed to be inverted; yet there is no evidence of any thing but a superabundant secretion; for, in fact, the bile is not only visible in the eyes, but copiously in the stools. In extraordinary discharges by stool, we perceive not the slightest evidence of morbid change, unless the more complete evacuation of the bowels, and the increased action of the mucous glands and exhalant arteries, be considered as such; for these will explain every appearance.

On the capillary glands and membranes, much useful information is sacrificed to what appears to us an attempt to step out of the common way; and, as we have made this remark, we shall anticipate a few pages for a striking instance.

‘ There is a species of the atrophy, which has not been well understood; when the absorbent vessels of the stomach and intestines have been long injured to the stimulus of too much spirituous

liquor, they at length, either by the too sudden omission of fermented or spirituous potation, or from the gradual decay of nature, become in a certain degree paralytic; now it is observed in the larger muscles of the body, when one side is paralytic, the other is more frequently in motion, owing to the less expenditure of sensorial power in the paralytic limbs; so in this case the other part of the absorbent system acts with greater force, or with greater perseverance, in consequence of the paralysis of the lacteals; and the body becomes greatly emaciated in a small time.

‘I have seen several patients in this disease, of which the following are the circumstances. 1. They were men about fifty years of age, and had lived freely in respect to fermented liquors. 2. They lost their appetite to animal food. 3. They became suddenly emaciated to a great degree. 4. Their skins were dry and rough. 5. They coughed and expectorated with difficulty a viscid phlegm. 6. The membrane of the tongue was dry and red, and liable to become ulcerous.’ Vol. i. p. 301.

A less active mind might more readily attribute the emaciation to the destruction of the tone of the stomach, which prevents the proper assimilation; and a less ingenious one would probably look no farther for all these changes, than the debility and want of irritability arising from a former stimulus, which is either discontinued, or has lost its power from habit.

In his view of hæmorrhages and petechiæ, Dr. Darwin particularly rests on the want of venous absorption; yet, in all the cases adduced, there is a manifest tenuity of the blood; and a more obvious cause exists, viz. the escape of blood from the capillaries that did not usually allow the passage of the red globules.

Most of the cases derived from a paralysis of the absorbents are, we think, more easily explicable in the usual way. The doctrine of the retrograde motion of the fluids in the absorbents, occurred to our notice in the 49th volume of our Review; and we then considered it as ingenious. On full reflection, we can add no farther praise; and to admit it would destroy the regular theory of the absorbent system, by weakening its great support, viz. the final cause of its numerous glands.

The temperaments that, in our author's opinion, produce disease, are, 1. Those of decreased irritability; 2. Of sensibility; 3. Of increased voluntariness; 4. Of increased association. These distinctions seem to us to be arbitrary; and they are not of sufficient moment to detain us.

Irritative fevers are the next subject of discussion; and they are explained in general with great precision. In the cold fit of fever, the external arteries are quiescent from de-

fiency of heat ; and Dr. Darwin thinks that the quiescence is communicated by association to internal capillaries, particularly those of the lungs and intestines. He explains the action of the cold bath and cold air in the same way. Perhaps they are not perfectly similar, as a cold fit of fever is attended with a slow belly, while cold air and sometimes cold aspersions have an opposite tendency. Besides, the watery diarrhœa, and the flow of limpid urine, seem to be more connected with increased action of these internal vessels, than with quiescence. The heat, subsequent to the cold fit, is, as may be supposed, attributed to the accumulation of sensorial power ; and the writer concludes, that 'fever fits are not an effort of nature to relieve herself,' and that the 'supernatural power of spasm' is not necessary to explain their circumstances.

Diseases of sensation are those in which the painful or pleasurable sensations, carried to excess, produce a deviation from health. The febrile diseases of this kind are fevers with topical inflammation, or the more malignant typhi, attended with putrid ulceration. In reality, they are the irritative fevers joined with topical affections. The delirium is not very satisfactorily explained, the effect of fever on the mental functions being unnoticed ; and the idea of epidemic and contagious diseases depending on disagreeable sensations, on which account brutes are exempted from them, is too ludicrous for examination.

In treating of diseases of volition, the author systematises an idea, which we saw with a suspicious eye in its germ, viz. that motions excited by desire and aversion are voluntary, though no action of the mind interpose, and though in some instances they may be contrary to the will, and uncontrollable by its power. If no farther consequence were to be drawn, we should only censure this as a source of some confusion ; but if it be designed to bring the human frame to a mere machine, and render its actions the necessary effects of the different causes, our author's conduct is more reprehensible. We see, indeed, a strong tendency to this conclusion in many parts ; but, on the whole, we think that the attempt carries its own antidote ; for, if mind be not exerted in volition, some similar distinguishing and active power must reside in the vessels, capable of feeling desire and aversion, and acting, in consequence, often with final views.

From the present pathological discussion, it is difficult to distinguish what complaints are meant to be included under the title of Diseases of Volition. It is a point much insisted on, that bodily exertions of any kind, if violent and active, relieve pain for a time. That they call off attention, in some degree, is true ; but that to relieve pain is the final cause,

there is much reason to doubt;—to clench the teeth, to raise the shoulders, to compress the chest, are, in many instances, not exertions to relieve pain, but merely to fix the bones, from which other muscles rise, or into which they are inserted. The rigor of fever, though confessedly the consequence of some re-action of the system, does not relieve the pain of coldness: on the contrary, the violent agitation of the muscles is more painful than actual cold. The screams and contortions of those who are in pain do not seem to mitigate it; for those who bear pain most firmly, never groan: the sturdy villain on the rack, the North-American savage in the midst of his tortures, scarcely ever utter a complaint or move a muscle.

In convulsions, quiescence succeeds the action; and it does so probably from the construction of the organ, or the laws of its power; but the principle is carried too far, when the palsy from diseased liver is considered as quiescence consequent on the previous disagreeable irritation. If this were the case, palsy should happen from disagreeable irritations of other kinds, and more certainly from violent pains. Strong convulsions seldom produce palsy; and, though agitations sometimes precede the last disease, they appear to be the beginnings and slighter degrees of it. A similar effect (it is observed) is produced by violent mental exertions: thus madness, which is considered as volition unmixed with sensation, sometimes alternates with convulsions. Various modes of mental exertion to relieve pain are enumerated; and they are illustrated by some uncommon cases.

The diseases of association are afterwards considered. In the associated trains, the energy, in all, may be greater or less than natural; or the former and latter parts of the train may differ in energy. Both parts of the train are exerted with greater energy than natural, when the action of the stomach in digestion excites that of the extreme vessels of the face—with unequal energy, when the increased action of the former consumes the sensorial power, and leaves the body chilly; or when, on the contrary, a nausea of the stomach, which is considered as diminished action, excites that of the absorbents—with diminished energy, when dyspnoea is excited, by going into a cold bath.

The section which follows is on the periods of diseases. The regular series of motions in the human system, so far as they are connected with the solar or lunar periods, are accurately detailed. But the explanation, from the solar and lunar influence, is doubtful. Indeed the introduction of these terms may probably bring the whole series of observations into disrepute: one very obvious remark will perhaps be sufficient on this occasion. We find always an evening exa-

cerbation, and a morning solution: we find, less distinctly, another exacerbation about ten in the forenoon, and a solution about one or two in the afternoon. This we observe in all climates, and at all seasons. We may therefore, perhaps, more safely attribute these changes to an established law of the system, than to external influences, which might equally operate on an inanimate machine.

Digestion, secretion, and nutrition, are ascribed to animal appetency for fluids suitable to the constitution; and digestion, in Dr. Darwin's opinion, cannot be imitated out of the body, because in the stomach the chyle is absorbed, as soon as formed, without having time to be changed by a chemical process. This, however, is contradicted by almost every fact relating to digestion. Sudden fear will immediately produce acid in the stomach; and the suppression of the biliary discharge, which is not poured into the stomach, will prevent the formation of chyle. In fact, chyle is not formed in the stomach, and is not immediately absorbed. It was with some surprise that we found the author not aware of a peculiar organic structure of the absorbing extremities of lacteals, demonstrated by Liberkuhn; and we thought it equally remarkable, that he should consider the thickening of animal hides by oak bark, as analogous to nutrition, since it is generally known that the leather loses in extent of surface what it gains in thickness.

Old age, Dr. Darwin thinks, consists in a want of excitability; but he does not add to the account, the lightness of the bones, the diminution of the cartilages, the decaying arteries, and the enlarged veins: all concur to bring us within a limited time to the grave.

In the section on the Oxygenation of the Blood, he argues, that the placenta is a respiratory organ, oxygenating the blood of the foetus by the contact of the maternal blood. But we see no occasion for such a circuitous operation. If the blood, contained in the arteries and veins of the mother, passes to the foetus, either by continuous vessels or by absorption, this blood must be oxygenated in her lungs; and we know that the blood of a pregnant woman is hyper-oxygenated, probably to answer this purpose in a more extended circulation. That the foetus is nourished by the mouth from the liquor amnii, is a crude idea of the last century; and it would have been better to have examined the judicious arguments of the elder Monro, in opposition to this system, than to have repeated the idle stories of Vanderwiël, and of the column of ice in the gullet of the frozen foetus. It may be properly asked, was the ice formed during the life or after the death of the foetus? If after death, the fact is inapplicable: if during life, it will not be easy to show how the tender foetus could

have borne the degree of cold necessary to the congelation. Other facts relative to the egg are also inaccurately stated; and consequences are drawn, which the real circumstances will not admit. Our author thinks that some ætherial fluid is absorbed with the air, and again secreted by the brain, to become the medium of sensation and the source of activity.

The next section is on generation. Dr. Darwin considers the embryo as a bud, an elongation of the parent, with powers, faculties, aversions, and desires, peculiarly its own, though resembling in some degree (often very strikingly) those of the parent. This living filament is, in his opinion, derived from the father; and he illustrates it by various analogies of vegetable and of some animal productions. His system we shall select from different pages, omitting some of his illustrations.

‘ I conceive the primordium, or rudiment of the embryo, as secreted from the blood of the parent, to consist of a simple living filament as a muscular fibre; which I suppose to be an extremity of a nerve of loco-motion, as a fibre of the retina is an extremity of a nerve of sensation; as for instance one of the fibrils, which compose the mouth of an absorbent vessel; I suppose this living filament, of whatever form it may be, whether sphere, cube, or cylinder, to be endued with the capability of being excited into action by certain kinds of stimulus. By the stimulus of the surrounding fluid, in which it is received from the male, it may bend into a ring; and thus form the beginning of a tube. Such moving filaments, and such rings, are described by those, who have attended to microscopic animalcula. This living ring may now embrace or absorb a nutritive particle of the fluid, in which it swims; and by drawing it into its pores, or joining it by compression to its extremities, may increase its own length or crassitude; and by degrees the living ring may become a living tube.’
Vol. i. p. 496.

‘ With every new change of organic form, or addition of organic parts, I suppose a new kind of irritability or of sensibility to be produced; such varieties of irritability or of sensibility exist in our adult state in the glands; every one of which is furnished with an irritability, or a taste, or appetency, and a consequent mode of action peculiar to itself.

‘ In this manner I conceive the vessels of the jaws to produce those of the teeth, those of the fingers to produce the nails, those of the skin to produce the hair; in the same manner as afterwards about the age of puberty the beard and other great changes in the form of the body, and disposition of the mind, are produced in consequence of the new secretion of semen; for if the animal is deprived of this secretion those changes do not take place. These changes I conceive to be formed not by elongation or distention of

primeval stamina, but by apposition of parts; as the mature crab-fish, when deprived of a limb, in a certain space of time has power to regenerate it; and the tadpole puts forth its feet long after its exclusion from the spawn; and the caterpillar in changing into a butterfly acquires a new form, with new powers, new sensations, and new desires.' Vol. i. p. 497.

‘What most of all distinguishes these new animals is, that they are new furnished with the powers of reproduction; and that they now differ from each other in sex, which does not appear in their caterpillar or grub state. In some of them the change from a caterpillar into a butterfly or moth seems to be accomplished for the sole purpose of their propagation; since they immediately die after this is finished, and take no food in the interim, as the silk-worm in this climate; though it is possible, it might take honey as food, if it was presented to it. For in general it would seem, that food of a more stimulating kind, the honey of vegetables instead of their leaves, was necessary for the purpose of the seminal reproduction of these animals, exactly similar to what happens in vegetables; in these the juices of the earth are sufficient for their purpose of reproduction by buds or bulbs; in which the new plant seems to be formed by irritative motions, like the growth of their other parts, as their leaves or roots; but for the purpose of seminal or amatorial reproduction, where sensation is required, a more stimulating food becomes necessary for the anther, and stigma; and this food is honey.

‘The gnat and the tadpole resemble each other in their change from natant animals with gills into aerial animals with lungs; and in their change of the element in which they live; and probably of the food, with which they are supported; and lastly, with their acquiring in their new state the difference of sex, and the organs of seminal or amatorial reproduction. While the polypus, who is their companion in their former state of life, not being allowed to change his form and element, can only propagate like vegetable buds by the same kind of irritative motions, which produces the growth of his own body, without the seminal or amatorial propagation, which requires sensation; and which in gnats and tadpoles seems to require a change both of food and of respiration.

‘From hence I conclude, that with the acquisition of new parts, new sensations, and new desires, as well as new powers, are produced; and this by accretion to the old ones, and not by dis-tention of them. And finally, that the most essential parts of the system, as the brain for the purpose of distributing the power of life, and the placenta for the purpose of oxygenating the blood, and the additional absorbent vessels for the purpose of acquiring aliment, are first formed by the irritations above mentioned, and by the pleasurable sensations attending those irritations, and by the exertions in consequence of painful sensations, similar to those of hunger and suffocation. After these an apparatus of limbs for

future uses, or for the purpose of moving the body in its present natant state, and of lungs for future respiration, and of testes for future reproduction, are formed by the irritations and sensations, and consequent exertions of the parts previously existing, and to which the new parts are to be attached. Vol. i. p. 498.

From these simple principles, Dr. Darwin traces all the varieties of animated beings; showing, from their different situation, their different wants and modes of life, how all the varieties in question may be produced; and the whole of this theory is well compacted, and detailed in a comprehensive and masterly manner. It fails, however, in point of fact, for the internal structure differs as much as the form; the bones, the distribution of the vessels and nerves of each species are peculiarly their own, and these cannot be influenced by different habits or modes of life. When he has so professedly guarded against the imputation of materialism, it would be unfair to charge him with it: yet we think the whole at a very short distance only from this pernicious system; and ingenuity, much less than his own, might add the remaining step. If we only admit, for a moment, the desires and aversions of this living filament, little is necessary for the superstructure.

The subject is pursued in many of its varieties; but we have not sufficient space for the detail. Indeed, in the whole, we observe too much imagination, and too little science or observation. Many facts, which materially oppose the author's system, should have been noticed and obviated; and various arguments should have been adduced, independent of the possibility of the process or the plausibility of the theory.

(To be continued.)

The State of the Poor: or, an History of the Labouring Classes in England, from the Conquest to the present Period; in which are particularly considered, their Domestic Economy, with respect to Diet, Dress, Fuel, and Habitation; and the various Plans which, from Time to Time, have been proposed, and adopted, for the Relief of the Poor: together with Parochial Reports relative to the Administration of Work-houses, and Houses of Industry; the State of Friendly Societies; and other Public Institutions; in several Agricultural, Commercial, and Manufacturing, Districts. With a large Appendix; containing a comparative and chronological Table of the Prices of Labour, of Provisions, and of other Commodities; an Account of the Poor in Scotland; and many original Documents on Subjects of national Importance. By Sir Frederic Morton Eden, Bart. 3 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.

THIS is a very important and valuable work. The extent of its utility will not be immediately known; but, from

the statements which it contains, the next generation will see in a true light all the effects of bad policy. The history of a whole nation chiefly presents some general outlines; or, when it enters into particulars, it exhibits the splendid vices of the worst part of the community, or the outrages committed on humanity by the bloody and merciless spirit of war. A good account of the lower classes of society, in different ages, is still a *desideratum*. From their progress in comfort, civilization, and knowledge, we may easily form an idea of the state of the higher orders: but, if the great mass of a community be overwhelmed with poverty, wretchedness, and ignorance, we may be assured, that some few of the higher classes will present the appearance (more disgusting to a humane mind) of pride, effeminacy, luxury, and avarice. Nature has prescribed these limits to civil institutions. Where the good of the majority of the people is studied, there will be the greatest portion of happiness, that a country can enjoy. The great may not have, to such an extent, the ideal comforts of life; but they will enjoy every thing which a rational being can desire. They will not so easily bring together a number of idle and dissipated persons, to create bad air in elegant apartments; but their tables will be well spread, their houses well furnished, their country-seats embellished; and they will see around them a people strong to labour, enjoying homely yet wholesome fare, and occupying cleanly well-aired habitations.

We are happy to see (and we flatter ourselves, that it is a presage of better views of government) that the state of the poor occupies so much of the public attention. The foundation of a building requires considerable care from the architect; or the fall of his most splendid ornaments will cover him with disgrace. In most governments, this consideration was overlooked; and the interests of the lower classes were grossly neglected. Christianity gave rise to a better system; but all the benefits which it is capable of introducing into a country have not yet appeared.

Such publications as the present prepare the public mind for the reception of salutary truths: they will teach a nation, in what its true happiness and glory consist; they will show how far distant possessions and extensive commerce ought to be encouraged; and they will plainly intimate, that, if during any period the comforts of the poor have been declining, while those of the rich have been advancing far beyond the proper bounds, neither the supposed glory nor increasing riches of the country can atone for the badness of its policy. The information and advice which may be found in these volumes, will, we hope, arrest the progress of the growing evil: but, if a similar system should be pursued for a few ge-

nerations more, it is to be apprehended, that the sources even of luxury will be dried up, and that the whole community, rich and poor, will fall a sacrifice to that inordinate love of wealth, which will ever be ruinous to a nation.

The accommodations of the poor of this country seem to have been progressive from the conquest to some time beyond the middle of the present century. Their situation then arrived at its acmè; and it has since been rapidly declining. The circumstances by which we are to judge must be their lodging, food, and clothing. Before that period, they frequently procured meat and beer; but, in the cottage, meat has in general disappeared, and beer has given place to tea. Beer, the wholesome strengthening drink of the country, the poor can no longer afford to make at home; and a resort to the ale-house would soon ruin their œconomy.

The uncomfortable state to which the indigent are thus reduced, is a proper object of legislative redress. In the Preface, our author explains to us the nature of his undertaking. He was at the trouble of visiting a number of parishes; to others he sent a list of questions, by the answers to which he could judge of the state of each parish. His inquiries related to the extent and population of each district, the prices of provision and labour, the rent of land, the sects of religion, tithes, large and small farms, articles of cultivation, commons and waste lands, benefit clubs or friendly societies, diet of labourers, their earnings, expenses, &c. In speaking of his work, he very modestly places himself in a class far below his real merit.

‘The edifice of political knowledge cannot be reared without its “hewers of stone,” and “drawers of water.” I am content to work among them; and, whilst others prefer, (and there never will be wanting many who will prefer) the more arduous task of architectural decoration, to assist in digging the foundation, or in dragging the rough block from the quarry. The glory of the builder may be more enviable; but the drudgery of the mason is practically more useful. The one may embellish the fabric; but without the labours of the other, it would never be reared at all. The industry of the peasant, and the ingenuity of the manufacturer, are the brick and mortar of the political structure; the raw materials, which the statesman must work with. He will always do well to recollect, that the “jutting frieze,” and the “Corinthian capital,” generally owe their strength and solidity to the solid brick-work behind them.’ Vol. i. p. xxix.

His queries respecting the benefit of commons to the poor were not properly answered by his correspondents.

‘Of the little, however, that is said, the sum is, that the advantages which cottagers and poor people derive from commons and wastes, are rather apparent than real: instead of sticking regular-

ly to any such labour, as might enable them to purchase good fuel, they waste their time, either like the old woman in Otway's Orphan, in picking up a few dry sticks, or in grubbing up, on some bleak moor, a little furze, or heath. Their starved pig or two, together with a few wandering gossings, besides involving them in perpetual altercations with their neighbours, and almost driving and compelling them to become trespassers, are dearly paid for, by the care and time, and bought food, which are necessary to rear them. Add to this, that as commons, and wastes, however small their value may be in their present state, are undoubtedly the property, not of cottagers, but of the land-owners; these latter, by the present wretched system, are thus made to maintain their poor, in a way the most costly to themselves, and the least beneficial to the poor. There are thousands and thousands of acres in the kingdom, now the sorry pastures of geese, hogs, asses, half-grown horses, and half-starved cattle, which want but to be enclosed and taken care of, to be as rich, and as valuable, as any lands now in tillage. In whatever way, then, it may seem fit to the legislature, to make those cottagers some amends for the loss, or supposed loss, they may sustain, by the reclaiming of wastes, it must necessarily be better for them, than their present precarious, disputable, and expensive advantages, obtained, if at all, by an ill-judged connivance, or indulgence, of the owners of land; and, by an heedless sacrifice of property, of which no one takes any account, and for which, of course, no one thanks them.' Vol. i. p. xviii.

We may add, that common-rights are in general beneficial to the rich, rather than to the poor. A cottager has a common-right for a cow and a sheep: but, as he cannot purchase either, this right must be sold. We know an instance where a farmer with some capital obtains between fifty and eighty pounds a year by these rights. He purchases many of them from the cottagers; buys heifers in the spring; sends them on the common, where they are under the care of the herdsman; sells them at Michaelmas, and receives the profit of the common. When people talk of the value of commons to the poor, they do not consider the capital necessary before the poor can derive any benefit from them.

The history of the poor is traced from the conquest. In the first stage, there were slaves and villeins; consequently much wretchedness prevailed; but the state of the villein was meliorated before the death of Edward the First, though the little inventories of the furniture of the poor show, that their comforts, compared with those of the present time, were inconsiderable. Manufactures then became more common, and many villeins rose to the station of free labourers. In the reign of Edward the Third, their increasing importance rendered them the subjects of statutes, which give us an insight into the state of the poor during that reign. These acts fixed a maximum of

wages for the benefit of the master, rather than of the servant. They were soon found to be impracticable; and the endeavour to restrict the labourer in the disposition of his slender earnings showed only the ignorance of the legislature.

‘Nor are such regulations more impolitic than impracticable. To carry the statute respecting apparel into effect, it was enacted, that clothiers should make their cloth conformably to the prices appointed by the statute: however, it appears from a subsequent regulation of the legislature, that, not being allowed to raise their price, they had contrived to indemnify themselves by shortening the length of a piece of cloth; as the brewers of modern times, (who know that, if they raised the price of beer, one immediate consequence would be their being burthened with a very heavy additional excise,) in order to lessen their losses from the high price of malt, are obliged to lower the strength of their porter, in order to be able to sell as great a quantity for 3½d. as they did five years ago.’ Vol. i. p. 40.

When free labourers form a state in society, the consequence is, that there must be a body of poor, strictly so called, who from sickness or accident are rendered incapable of gaining their livelihood; and having now no lord to protect them, they must draw relief from other quarters. On this subject we have a judicious remark from our author.

‘Without the most distant idea of disparaging the numberless benefits derived to this country from manufactures and commerce, the result of this investigation seems to lead to this inevitable conclusion, that manufactures and commerce are the true parents of our national poor; and to justify the (by no means unreasonable, or captious) opinion of those, who think that it is particularly incumbent on persons engaged in manufactures, and commerce, to help to maintain them. To complain, however, that they have, by the inequality which industry must ever occasion, been the source of misery to some members of the community, is to complain of the causes which have raised us to an unexampled pitch of national prosperity, and of the consequences which are necessarily attached to it.’ Vol. i. p. 60.

Queen Elizabeth is supposed, by many, to have instituted our laws relative to the poor; but she only developed the ancient system. The statutes of Richard the Second and Henry the Fourth, for making a provision for this class of people, evidently led the way to her regulations. The writer traces the effects of the interference of the legislature on the wages of workmen; and, having shown the state of the poor to the reign of Henry the Eighth, he thus closes his first chapter.

‘Such were the laws enacted for the maintenance of the poor, the regulation of wages, and other matters immediately affecting the labouring classes, previous to the important era of the refor-

mation: they do not evince much knowledge of political economy in the legislature that formed them, and have not been found to be practicably useful in subsequent times; nor is even the information, which they convey, respecting the general progress of society, always to be depended on. A stranger to our history, who only perused the ancient statute for preventing enclosures, and limiting the wages of labour, would naturally infer, from the grievous complaints, so often reiterated by the commons, of scarcity, decay of husbandry, and depopulation, that, in the period between the reigns of the First Edward and Henry the Eighth, the nation had been gradually declining in wealth and prosperity. On the contrary, however, we have every reason to suppose, that, during the 14th and 15th centuries, the great mass of the people had made rapid advances in every branch of civilization. Many manufactures, formerly unknown, had been introduced, and established in the country. The cloathing arts alone, (which, by the patronage of the Third Edward, were generally extended throughout England,) would have produced a great improvement in social life, if unshackled by prohibition or monopoly: they are the most beneficial, because they are the most intimately connected with the agriculture of a country. While the consumption of meat necessarily encourages the breed of sheep, our farmers must feel the advantages of a manufacture which takes off a raw material, that would otherwise remain, in a great measure, useless: they cannot feed mutton without producing wool. It is from the sale of these two articles, that they must obtain a fair profit for rearing sheep; and, consequently, the less they get for the one, the more they must demand for the other. It is justly observed, that whatever regulations tend to sink the price either of wool or raw hides below what it naturally would be, must, in an improved and cultivated country, have some tendency to raise the price of butcher's meat. That the prohibition of exporting wool from England, and from Ireland except to England, has operated in this way, can, I think, admit of little doubt. Permission to import it from Spain, duty free, had probably the same effect, and offers an encouragement to the Spanish, at the expence of the English farmer. I have very little doubt, that one cause of the high price of provisions is the disadvantage which farmers lie under in disposing of their wool. While the manufactures are so thriving that they can take off all the wool produced in the kingdom, prohibition is unnecessary; for no other country can give better prices; but if the demand for meat is greater than that for wool, the farmer, if he increases his stock of sheep, must expect to have an unsaleable surplus of wool on his hands. If he proportions his stock of sheep to the demand for wool, he will not be able to supply the demand for mutton. If he could raise wool, like cotton, unconnected with any other production, he would proportion the quantity to the demand; but as this is out of his power, he is obliged to indent.

nify himself for the reduced price of his superabundant wool, by augmenting the price of the eatable part of the carcase. It is said, that an increase in the price of wool would exclude our manufacturers from the foreign market; but if we could undersell the French in cottons, even while the island of Tobago was in their possession, and we were obliged to purchase the raw material from them, there seems to be less danger of a decline in our clothing trade, which is now almost, exclusively, carried on by this country: capital and skill, in this instance, as in others, would probably, even if the exportation of wool were permitted, enable the British trader to keep possession of the market.' Vol. i. p. 87.

The reformation was attended with various advantages, which, however, were almost balanced by some temporary inconveniences. The destruction of the monasteries injured for a time both the industry and other resources of the poor; but, when they had recovered from the first shock, their situation was gradually meliorated. We have in this period several instances of the folly of the legislature in its fears about the increase of London, and its statutes to prevent the building of houses within three miles of the capital.

The laws of Elizabeth, for the maintenance of the poor, were in some respects judicious. In the reign of her successor, the ill-judged plan of determining the wages for labour continued; and it was suspected, that the laws in question were a premium for idleness: but many salutary bills were enacted in this inglorious reign (as some improperly term it), for the better administration of justice, and the encouragement of manufactures and commerce; and the spirit of industry, during a long peace, took deep root in the kingdom. By the civil war of the next reign, these advantages were impaired; but the duration of the commonwealth was marked by augmented industry and trade, and increasing prosperity. Among the early acts of Charles II. that which laid the foundation for the law of settlements, now happily annulled, is the most important. Before that reign, the poor might go whither they pleased: but, by the new law, the overseers of a parish were empowered to remove them; and a single clause in this act, relative to settlements, has been productive of great emolument to the lawyers. The inconveniences of it were soon discovered; but a long time elapsed before the legislature returned to its senses, and restored the poor to their ancient privileges.—Mr. Firmin's plan for giving employment to the poor occupies much of our author's attention, and leads him, with the scheme of sir M. Hale, for employing them in the woollen manufacture, to the close of the second chapter.

The third period opens with a curious statement of the income and expense of families in England for the year 1688,

with observations by Dr. Davenant. Several plans for the better maintenance of the poor follow: that of Locke particularly deserves attention. A more important fact occurs in the reign of George the First, when houses on certain conditions were directed to be built for the poor. From this time, in different parts of the kingdom, many work-houses arose, the benefits of which are problematical. A quotation from Mandeville's *Fable of the Bees*, applicable to the establishment of charity-schools, is introduced, with a liberal note on the worth of that writer, whom it has been the fashion to decry; and his remarks are with great propriety recommended to the consideration of the advocates of Sunday schools. The plans of Mr. Hay, the earl of Hillsborough, sir Richard Lloyd, Mr. Hanway, the dean of Gloucester, baron Maseres, lord Kaimes, Mr. Gilbert, Mr. Acland, Mr. Howlett, and sir W. Young, come successively under review, and respectively give occasion for just remarks. This part concludes with the mention of a plan to which our readers, we are persuaded, will readily accede.

‘ The legislators, who shall attempt the arduous task of reducing the contradictions of our poor laws, to one uniform system of national benevolence; who shall aim at administering relief to the indigent, in the way most congenial to the feelings of humanity; but, more especially, at superseding the necessity of parochial assistance, by rendering the accumulations of humble industry more secure and more productive; who shall endeavour to train the children of the labouring classes, by public instruction, to order and industry; and, in short, to introduce a reform, which shall itself contain the seeds of further improvement, and thus, efficiently, to promote the great ends of charity; will deserve well of their country. For, however unattainable the perfection, which they aim at, may be, the thorough revision of a complicated and corrupted code may, and probably will, have the good effect of stimulating active minds to investigate subjects of the highest importance, and of thus producing the most beneficial consequences to mankind. When the condition of the peasant and working manufacturer becomes a more general topic of enquiry, well ascertained facts will, whilst they level in the dust the plausible schemes of theoretical philanthropy, lead to innumerable discoveries, which, though unenforced by legal regulation, may prove acceptable, and useful to the great mass of the community.

‘ From the collision of practical research, many valuable truths, and many profound axioms of state policy, will be struck out. The country will learn too, from the adoption of measures which are directed to advance the comforts of domestic life, and social happiness, among the most numerous order in the state, that all the wisdom of the legislature is not derived from, nor directed to, the

custom-house, excise-office, or exchequer. Even if no new regulations should result from the plan which Mr. Pitt has already opened to parliament, the nation will be benefited by the acquisition of that useful knowledge which forms the basis of political science. The dissemination of truth will at once facilitate the operations, and promote the great ends, of government.' Vol. i. P. 409.

(*To be continued.*)

Sermons preached to parochial Congregations, by the late Reverend Richard Southgate, B. A. &c. With a Biographical Preface, by George Gaskin, D. D. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.

OF these volumes the following account is given by the editor.

' They are the productions of a man, whose mind was well furnished and highly cultivated; whose learning was extensive and accurate, particularly in classics, history, and theology; whose principles were formed strictly upon the orthodox views of the church of England, whether we contemplate her primitive episcopal constitution, or her creed; whose high aim was to promote the glory of God, the knowledge of Christ crucified for the salvation of penitent sinners, and the spiritual edification of Christians; whose ministry was exercised with gravity, zeal, and perseverance; whose politics were such as the Bible inculcates, and the primitive Christians gloried in; whose temper was mild and amiable; and the tenor of whose life, adorned the doctrine of "God our Saviour." Vol. i. p. iv.

We take pleasure in subscribing to the greater part of what is here asserted of the respectable author of these discourses, whose reputation however, will not derive any addition from the work. It is difficult to ascertain the proper bounds of orthodoxy and politics; and, if a slight deviation from the former should occur in any of these sermons, we shall not be too rigid in our censures, since all men are liable to error; but we ought to express our strong disapprobation when temporary politics are mingled with religion. The failings in this respect are not very frequent in these discourses; and, when they do occur, there appears in general such an earnestness for the spiritual welfare of the hearers, that they are not to be put on the same level with the ordinary effusions of party preachers. In one case, however, the allusions are much too strong: they are calculated to draw the attention of the readers from a very important topic to the politics of the day, and must remind them of some improper expressions which were used in the last parliament by a member of the

house of commons. On the rejection of our Saviour for Barabbas by the Jews, we have this remark —

‘ What a dreadful picture does this exhibit of human nature ! that almost a whole city should unite in favouring a man who had been guilty of sedition, the greatest crime that a man can commit against a state,—and of murder, the greatest he can commit against individuals ; and that this wretch should not only be preferred to a most just person, but be made the instrument of condemning him ! This very circumstance shews what judgment we may form of the voice of the multitude : it shews us how dangerous are privileges abused, and that those privileges, which are most liable to be abused, should be granted with a sparing hand. The populace have ever been swayed more by noise and pretensions, than real virtue ; at the best, fickle and inconstant, equally mistaken both in their applauses and their censures. Governors, therefore, should alway be steady in opposing the clamours of weak and malicious zealots. I am sorry that these reflections, arising from the subject, should not be foreign or unnecessary for the times in which we live ; since, though the people cannot demand the release of a prisoner with clamour, as the Jews did that of Barabbas, yet the examples are too many, in which they are easily induced to range themselves under the influence of any unprincipled and artful leader, who works upon their prejudices and passions, inflamed by these to oppose both laws and magistrates ; and when any popular criminal is acquitted, by whatever verdict, they too can shew what spirit they are of by their criminal acclamations.’ Vol. ii. P. 334.

The acclamations of the Jews would not have been criminal, if the delivery of their countryman to them had been an act of grace from the governor ; nor should a preacher have gone out of his way to notice the acclamations of a multitude on the solemn acquittal of an accused person in our courts. The sin of the Jews consisted in calling out for the death of a person against whom no crime was alleged : but it is not the part of a Christian divine to impute sinister motives to those who display their joy when a countryman is restored to them, and freed from the apprehensions of an untimely end. We know not what instructions the editor had for the selection of these sermons ; but we should have had a better opinion of his judgment, if, consistently with his duty, he had omitted the above-quoted passage, and such others as detract from the general spirit of benevolence, which prevails in the writings of his friend.

In the following passage, there is some degree of obscurity, which might without much difficulty have been removed by the editor, or explained in a note.

‘ God is the father of Christ in a peculiar and eminent manner, from the communication of his divinity. He had a glory with the father before the world was, being himself “ the brightness of

God's glory, and the express image of his person." He was in the form of God, and of the same essence with him; but the Father hath his essence from himself, the son by participation with the father. Here, then, is an identity of nature, and this relation is peculiar to Jesus Christ. God is the creator, and therefore the father of many glorious spirits, who stand about his throne. But "unto which of the angels said he at any time, Thou art my son, this day have I begotten thee?" So far are they from sharing the supreme glories of the Messiah, that they are ministering spirits not only to him, but to those whom he has redeemed. This relation received a peculiar lustre, when he ascended upon high, in the character of a mediator. Having finished his appointed work, his inward glory could no longer be obscured. But as he came forth from the father, and was come into the world, so now he was to leave the world, and go to the father.' Vol. ii. p. 369.

Is there not great danger, that, in attributing divine essence to the father in one way, and to the son by participation only in another, the unlearned may conceive that Christ is not eternal? The difficulty is not diminished as we proceed.

'To complete the glorious work, this father is God; and therefore our Saviour adds "to my God, and your God." Christ ascended to the father, constituted to be a mediator in behalf of his people; and therefore when he calls God, "my God," it is with reference to his mediatorial character. As the son of God by nature, he is his father; but as the son of man, he is his God.' Vol. ii. p. 371.

The last sentence is confused; and it is difficult to reconcile the sense with the grammar of the passage.

The writer seems not to have had very correct notions of orthodoxy.

'It is your duty to seek to be blessed in the name of the Trinity, rather than dispute about it; to rejoice with reverence and holy awe, upon a view of your privileges, rather than seek to investigate them with a bold and prying eye. Orthodoxy itself is of little value, when not attended with right affections: whereas, a man of a humble, pious, and truly catholic spirit, will bear the victorious palm, though opposed by legions of narrow and bigotted souls.' Vol. ii. p. 410.

Orthodoxy, without doubt, will avail little, if it is not attended by correspondent practice; and to be a mere disputant upon the subject of the trinity can be of little consequence; yet the church would not with such accuracy have described the different offices and characters of the triune God, if, in 'seeking to be blessed in the name of the trinity,' we might at pleasure confound the persons, or divide the substance.

But, though Mr. Southgate cannot be considered as having been strictly orthodox, his notions of toleration exhibit him in an amiable point of view.

‘ In the first place, no man must despise others, because they hold opinions different from his own. In this imperfect state, men will think differently, in proportion to their different capacities and endowments. The same truths, which are clear to some, will appear obscure to others: and, whilst some are capable of nice investigations, others must be content with believing as they have been taught, and as they are led by the authority of those, who are wiser than themselves. In the mean time, if they hold the foundation, allowance must be made for the defects of men’s educations, their early prejudices and involuntary mistakes. If we make no allowance for these, we then assume to ourselves the character of judges, and presume to be lords over the flock of Christ. If, indeed, their opinions should be wrong, to treat them with contempt, will only contribute to confirm them in their error. However, bitterness is no test of truth, but sadly proves, that we know not, what most concerns us to know; what spirit we ourselves are of. For, indeed, how many prejudices may there be in our own hearts, which we have not discovered? This is certain, whilst we condemn others, perhaps; for imaginary mistakes, we ourselves stand convicted for the want of substantial goodness. For, if there be any spirit more offensive to good men, or more hostile to true religion than another, — if there be any leaven more truly bitter, it is the leaven of our own arrogance and conceit mixt with our religion. Should schisms and divisions be produced by this spirit, and nothing is more likely to produce them, a good man, whilst he condemns the offence, will pity the offender. Whilst he adopts the zeal, he will abhor the malignity, that frequently attends it, and triumph over bigotry, not by using the same weapons, but by that truly christian fervency, which arises from love unfeigned.’ Vol. ii. p. 114.

We shall only offer one more extract, which, with the former, will give a sufficient idea of the author’s language and manner.

‘ Let us consider another instance or two, in which, the faculty of reading is often employed to a bad and destructive purpose. We are told that the Athenians spent their time in nothing else, but to tell, or hear, some new thing. In this disposition, vast numbers of us are their legitimate descendants. To read the news of the day is attended to, by them, with such avidity, as almost to absorb every other reading: it is their Bible, their Prayer-Book, their Whole Duty of Man: it is their law, and their gospel: the busy, as well as idle, generally find time for this gratification. Here, those, who are strangers to themselves, misemploy their time, and their attention, upon the actions, and fate of others. Here, they learn false patriotism, and pretended virtues. Here, they unlearn the modesty, which true religion inspires; and from hence, they claim a right of directing, and blaming, those that are above them. The effect of this is, what may justly be expected from those, who, unguarded by christian knowledge, and an affection for the word of God, are blindly led by libertine maxims, to a most libertine conduct.

‘As our newspapers have contributed to form our ungovernable manners, so most of those productions, which are poured from the press, under the name of novels, tend to make them loose. In some of these, the open incentives to vice are displayed, to tempt the corruptions of nature to be more corrupt. In others, the poison is gilded over with decency, and ensnares with greater facility, the young and unsuspecting. In others, the most atrocious faults are represented as objects of pity, rather than resentment. Then their guilt vanishes, and the conscience becomes more favourable to vice. In many, that are most admired, sentiment is adopted for virtue, real virtue is never seen, and false patterns of imitation are recommended to the heart. The observations I have made upon these dangerous writings are, in general, applicable to our modern favourite comedies.’ Vol. i. p. 232.

Our readers, in all probability, will now be ready to join with us in the opinion, that, if the editor, instead of printing these discourses, had added them to his private stock, the public would have sustained no injury, and his labours might have been considerably alleviated.

A Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek and Latin proper Names, in which the Words are accented and divided into Syllables exactly as they ought to be pronounced; with References to Rules, which show the Analogy of Pronunciation. To which is added, a complete Vocabulary of Scripture proper Names, divided into Syllables, and accented according to Rules drawn from Analogy and the best Usage. Concluding with Observations on the Greek and Latin Accent and Quantity, with some probable Conjectures on the Method of freeing them from the Obscurity and Confusion in which they are involved, both by the Ancients and Moderns. By John Walker. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons, 1798.

‘MEN of learning will always form a sort of literary aristocracy; they will be proud of the distinction, which a knowledge of languages gives them above the vulgar, and will be fond of showing this knowledge, which the vulgar will never fail to admire and imitate.’ p. 136.

The word *aristocracy* is liable to great abuse: if it is meant as a reproach upon men of learning, we see no ground for it; for, even on the subject of this book, they are too apt to give way to vulgar opinion. Would our author wish us to cry down this aristocracy, and to form our judgment from the practice of theatrical performers and their imitators? Let it suffice, that players can seduce the world, as it is called, into a variety of false pronunciations; with this triumph, let them rest content. We are not yet so tame or passive as to resign all

claim to a literary aristocracy. Though the multitude will follow these blind guides, men of education may be permitted to retain a better mode of speaking ; for

‘ It is in these as in many English words : there are some which, if mispronounced, immediately show a want of education ; and there are others which, though not pronounced in the most erudite manner, stamp no imputation of ignorance or illiteracy.’
P. xxxii.

Or, as Cicero expressed himself before our author, *tamen apparet atque extat utrum simus earum rerum rudes an didicerimus.*

When the brave Kosciuszko had distinguished himself by his gallant but unsuccessful efforts to maintain the independence of his country, his name was every day in the mouths of those Englishmen, who retained the spirit of their ancestors. It was natural that the mode of pronunciation should vary ; but at length those who knew the Polish pronunciation, established among us both a better sound and a more pleasing uniformity. This was done by a literary aristocracy ; that is, by persons who were better acquainted with the pronunciation of the word than others were ; and, if we could find as good a literary aristocracy for Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, we should be happy to bow ourselves, and should see with pleasure a general obedience, to its authority.

In such an aristocracy the clergy of all denominations ought to have some rank, if they, by reading the scriptures in their different places of worship, did not give us too many proofs of their ignorance of that language which ought to be their chief study. They will probably have recourse to such a work as this, instead of applying themselves to the Hebrew. By the latter study, they would be taught to pronounce *Adonias*, *Adonibezek*, *Adonijah*, *Adonikam*, *Adoniram*, with some consistency, instead of varying the accent as our author does, who places it in the first word on the *o*, in the second on *be*, in the third on *ni*, in the fourth on *don*, in the fifth on *i* ; whereas they are all compound words, — *Adoni*, the first word of the compound, meaning, *my lord*, and requiring throughout the same accentuation. This is the most faulty part of the work before us, the writer being probably little, if at all, acquainted with the original language. Thus, in *Ami-nadab*, *min* is improperly accented ; but, wherever the accent is placed, *nadab* is to be kept entire. *Azmaveth* ought to have the accent on the second syllable ; *Baalzebub* on the last ; *Berith* on the last ; *Bethabara* on the penultimate. *Carmel* is *carm-el*, *Elishaphat* is *Eli-shaphat*, *Hephzibah* is *Hephzi-bah*. *Sabaoth* also should have the accent on the penultimate ; and then it would not be confounded with *sabbath*, a word of a

very different meaning. We could point out a variety of other words, in which this vocabulary fails: but these will be sufficient to show that, if the clergy would pay as much attention to the Hebrew as a few of them do to the Greek and Latin, they might, with more propriety, direct the reading of the scriptures, than the actors do that of our favourite Shakspeare.

In the vocabulary of Greek and Latin words, there are fewer faults. In this part of the work the writer had the benefit of the literary aristocracy, whose pronunciation is in general consonant with the rules laid down by the authors whom he follows. But custom breaks through all rules. Thus we pronounce *Darius* and *Arius* with different accents, though the *i* is equally long in both words. It is not difficult to assign a reason for this difference; and we need only refer to that period, when the name of *Darius* was known to few except the learned, and that of *Arius* was in every man's mouth in the western world. We shall not, however, minutely examine the vocabulary, but consider some of the remarks on the pronunciation of Latin.

The English are accused of marring the Latin tongue by their mode of speaking it. It is certain that we might correct some faults by attending to the quantity of the vowels, as given in the poets. But let us hear the objections of Mr. Walker to any alteration.

‘ If this mode of pronouncing Latin be that of foreign nations, and were really so superior to our own, we certainly must perceive it in the pronunciation of foreigners, when we visit them, or they us: but I think I may appeal to the experience of every one who has had an opportunity of making the experiment; that so far from a superiority on the side of the foreign pronunciation, it seems much inferior to our own. I am aware of the power of habit, and of its being able “to make the worse appear the better reason” on many occasions; but if the harmony of the Latin language depended so much on a preservation of the quantity as many pretend, this harmony would surely overcome the bias we have to our own pronunciation; especially if our own were really so destructive of harmony as it is said to be. Till, therefore, we have a more accurate idea of the nature of quantity, and of that beauty and harmony of which it is said to be the efficient in the pronunciation of Latin, we ought to preserve a pronunciation which has naturally sprung up in our own soil, and is congenial to our native language. Besides, an alteration of this kind would be attended with so much dispute and uncertainty as must make it highly impolitic to attempt it.’ P. xx.

From occasional conversation with foreigners in Latin, particularly with Italians, we differ entirely from our author;

but we acknowledge, that, unless a man has learned the foreign pronunciation, his own barbarous mode will naturally appear to him the best; and, as to the harmony of the language, the present reviewer had no just idea of it, till a journey on the continent had enabled him to correct his academical jargon, and had shown to him the true harmony of the Sapphic and Alcaïc measures, in which, upon the general plan adopted in our schools, scarcely any two adjoining stanzas are found to agree.

Our author is exceedingly angry with those scholars who give the hard sound of the *g* to *gymnastick* and *heterogeneous*, and would have the soft sound in *Geta* and *Gyges*. Yet, in *Chabrias* and *Colchis*, he gives way to the learned; but *Chthonia* he would metamorphose into *Thonia*.

‘ Words beginning with *Sche*, as *Schedius*, *Scheria*, &c. are pronounced as if written *Skedius*, *Skeria*, &c.; and *c* before *n* in the Latin prænomen *Cneus* or *Cnæus* is mute; so in *Cnopus*, *Cnusus*, &c. and before *t* in *Cteatus*, and *g* before *n* in *Gnidus*.

‘ Before Greek words we frequently find the uncombinable liquids *MN*, as *Mnemofyne*, *Mnesidamus*, *Mneus*, &c. These are to be pronounced with the *m* mute, as if written *Nemofyne*, *Nesidamus*, *Neus*, &c. in the same manner as we pronounce *Bdellium*, *Pneumatic*, *Gnomon*, and *Mnemonics*. p. xxviii.

‘ *Ph*, followed by a consonant, is mute, as *Phthia*, *Phthiotis*, pronounced *Thia*, *Thiotis*, in the same manner as the naturalized Greek word *Phthick* is pronounced *Tifick*.

‘ *Ps*, *p* is mute also in this combination, as in *Psyche*, *Psammetichus*, &c. pronounced *Syke*, *Sammeticus*, &c.

‘ *Pt*, *p* is mute in words beginning with these letters when followed by a vowel, as *Ptolomy*, *Pterilas*, &c. pronounced *Tolomy*, *Terilas*, &c.; but when followed by *l*, the *t* is heard, as in *Tleptolemus*.’ p. xxviii.

In defiance of these rules, we shall continue to sound the *c* in *Cnopas*, the *m* in *Mnesidamus*, the *ph* in *Phthia*, the *p* in *Psyche*, &c.

‘ *Omphale*. The accentuation a mere English speaker would give to this word was experienced a few years ago by a pantomime called *Hercules* and *Omphale*; when the whole town concurred in placing the accent on the second syllable, till some classical scholars gave a check to this pronunciation by placing the accent on the first. This, however, was far from banishing the former manner, and disturbed the public ear without correcting it. Those, however, who would not wish to be numbered among the vulgar must take care to avoid the penultimate accent.’ p. 85.

The public ear, it seems, was disturbed by giving the true pronunciation of the word, which was also, in this case, con-

formable with the genius of the English language. Thus we hear of the peace of the church being disturbed, or the peace of the country disturbed; and this phrase means, in general, that men, being obstinately attached to their own errors, prefer indolent ignorance to activity and information. Thus the peace of the church was disturbed by Luther, according to the papists; though we are indebted to his exertions for great benefits; and the peace of ignorance, folly, and corruption, is the sleep of death, which every lover of literature and liberty must deprecate as the worst of evils.

But, though we find much to reprehend in the present work, we approve the plan; and, with judicious corrections, it may be made very useful to the unlettered part of the community.

The Elements and Theory of the Hebrew Language. By Edward Dowling. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman. 1797.

THE great difficulty in teaching the Hebrew language to an Englishman, or indeed any European, consists in the use of the points; and the disputes on this subject are known to all the learned. Various means have been devised for superseding the use of them. The scheme of Masclaf is now most in use with those who reject the points; but it does not entirely please our author, who adopts a mode between the Masoretic plan and that of Dr. Sharpe. As a specimen, we give the first psalm on his mode.

‘ Ashri he-a’sh ashir
La helak
Bi-ozat rashoim
Vu-bidrak hethaim
La omed
Vo-bi-mushib lazim
La ishib

Ki am

Bi-t’rat Yeove
Hapets-hu
Vu-bi-t’rat-hu yege
Iumim vu-lile.’

P. ix.

Those who have learned Hebrew (as we have) by Masclaf’s plan, will not see much advantage in this new mode; and, if they have subsequently (as well as ourselves) rejected the Masclafian for the Masoretic readings, they will not be inclined to quit a very easy mode of reading, with points, for one in which the language, to a cultivated ear, will seem barbarous and uncouth.

Let any persons, for example, try this method in the English language; and let *b* be always pronounced as *be*, *k* as *ka*, *t* as *te*: *bad*, therefore, would be pronounced *bead*; *king* and *top*, *kaing* and *teöp*. By such a mode, they would go upon a regular system to pronounce most words improperly. Of all people in the world, the English are the last who ought to object to the use of the points; for, on examining our own language, we shall find that a very great proportion of our words afford as little direction by their letters for the pronunciation, as the Hebrew. Thus, from the powers of the single letters, who can reconcile the words *though*, *foreigner*, *colonel*, with the modern pronunciation? Any one who takes up a spelling-book, and compares the mode in which an English boy learns to spell English, and a young Jew to spell Hebrew, will see that there is not more difficulty in the latter than the former practice. Scholars reject this consideration; but the exercise of three or four days with a common Jew teacher, and a short examination of some Jewish boys, will teach him more upon this subject, than he can gain from the writings of Buxtorf, Montanus, Masclef, or other Hebraists.

If we see little reason for adopting Mr. Dowling's mode of reading, still less do we approve what he calls the philosophy of the language. Our readers may form a competent idea of his views upon this subject from the following extract concerning the verb of existence.

‘ In Hebrew, this verb is composed of three letters הוה, *he*; than which a more beautiful hieroglyphic of existence never can be contrived. Time is immediately and essentially associated with the idea of material existence; so much so, that it would be difficult to give any other definition of either it or of space, than by describing them as certain relations, which all material things have amongst themselves, according to the two orders of successive and of simultaneous existence. Existence, with respect to time, or in the successive order, is its only consideration, with which grammarians have to do in tenses:—to proceed accordingly, time past differs from the future, only as prior doth from posterior, for which reason, in the Hebrew verb, the same letter ה is caused to stand as the sign of each by means of reduplication, which, in two correspondent situations, betokens the relations of prior and posterior, in a manner which speaks at once to the eye, and to the intellect, הוה!!!

‘ The connecting medium between, v. g. the gulphs of the two eternities, the one past, the other to come, is the present moment; and, as the foregoing remarks tend to evince, that each of these is represented by an ה, so it may also be concluded, that the existing instant is denoted by ה, which yokes them together in one word.

‘ Now ך in ךך stands as a remote or primary element, i. e. in the state the nighest to it's abstract meaning, which can be exhibited, for existence is not resolvable beyond the three periods spoken of; consequently, it is discovered to be the simple hieroglyphic of connection, to which idea it's use in betokening the present time is referrible, as well as all other offices in which it may be found employed.

‘ As every instant of time, which hath passed by, from the period of the creation of outward nature unto the present, was once present; and as every instant, which in the indefinite series shall inevitably be hereafter, will be also present; so, as it is convenient, in order to avoid ambiguity, that time, in inflections, should be represented principally by one hieroglyphic, that of connection, or present moment, the medium between the extremes will be found most applicable to every period, which it can denote by significant and systematic changes of place, in like manner as ך has been observed to do in the past, and the to come only, which changes have been shewn to have a manifest agreement with the genius of the language, by the doctrine of affixing and prefixing the pronominal fragment in the preceding section.’ p. 54.

Hence it is evident, that our author is not free from the mysticism of rabbinical writers, which has passed into some philosophical grammars; and, as he laments that he could not procure a copy of the *Επεα Πτεροεντα*, or *Diversions of Purley*, we are happy in congratulating him on the appearance of a new edition of that work, much enlarged; from the perusal of which his present ideas of the philosophy of grammar will be reduced to more simple principles.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS.

Letter to a County Member, on the Means of securing a safe and honourable Peace. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1798.

THIS writer commences with stating, as an axiom, that ‘ from France, whether republican or royalist, we can expect no sincere friendship, nor any lasting repose, while she is powerful enough to claim, and we have spirit enough to resist, that meddling with the interior concerns of independent nations, at which she has always aimed, and which every Frenchman, of every party, considers as the *geographical* prerogative of his country.’ Without denying that the French possess at present a very large share of ambition, may it not be asked, whether this ‘ meddling with the interior concerns of independent nations’ is exclusively the sin of a French government? France has certainly conquered

much in Europe, and she has treated the vanquished in the true spirit of conquest. But let it be remembered that France has not gained one inch of territory from any nations but those which rose up in arms to interfere with her interior concerns, and has respected those few states which maintained a neutrality.

It is in vain, however, that disputes are now carried on about these points. The fact is, that the power of France has been extended until it is become formidable beyond what it ever was; and the present question is, how we are to support our independence against it? Our author's plan is, that, if we mean to reduce France to her proper weight in the balance of Europe, it must be done, and can only be done, by diminishing her territorial acquisitions. If we mean to provide for the future safety of our own country, this can only be done by expelling the French from the Netherlands. The means, adds this writer, are in our possession; and they are the conquests which we have made from France and from her (*ci-devant* our) allies. We must begin with laying the foundation of a military union of the northern powers of Europe, upon such reciprocal advantages as will not be of a temporary, but of a solid and permanent nature. Part of this plan is to enable Prussia to wrest from France the conquests which she has made on this side of the Rhine; and, as a compensation to Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, for such assistance as they may be disposed to give, we are to divide among them our own colonial conquests, in stipulated proportions. Such is the outline of a plan, of which the substance is, that we should re-commence a continental war against France, with several new and some of our old allies.

It is obvious that the framer of this plan has not experience on his side; but the reader will find, in this piece, abundance of plausible reasoning, conveyed in the language of moderation, and often supported by a considerable knowledge of the political interests of Europe. In order to show that our means are equal to this new undertaking, he enters into a series of calculations, from which he would infer that the population of Great-Britain and Ireland is not short of seventeen millions, and that our credit is high and our resources are great. In the course of these discussions, he examines the various opinions which prevail with respect to the probable future state of France; and, without giving a peremptory decision, offers shrewd remarks on each.

Remarks on the Conduct of Opposition during the present Parliament,
by Geoffrey Mowbray, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1798.

The secession of the opposition is the ostensible subject of this pamphlet; but it also embraces most of the points now controverted in the political world. The author is a strenuous supporter of the present ministers, whose conduct he admires in every instance, while he censures that of their opponents with the greatest severity; his censure, however, is gross and illiberal. It is such as would not be permitted in a society that preserved any respect for the charities of human life, and is a lamentable proof of the mischiefs of party zeal. In one respect this writer's animosity carries him farther than he probably intended; for he represents the se-

cession of Mr. Fox and his associates as a great crime, at the same time that he accuses them of political heresies, which ought to make the nation rejoice that they have seceded, and ought to disqualify them from returning.

An Appeal to the sober Understandings of Englishmen, on the present State of Ireland. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1797.

After a fair, and generally temperate, discussion of the points in dispute between the people and government of Ireland, this author recommends immediate concession of all the reasonable claims of that country; particularly a reform of parliament, and the admission of the catholics to seats in parliament and offices of trust. This advice has been repeatedly given. After farther delays it may perhaps become useless; but in the mean time, unless a third power be established as umpire, who shall determine what are 'reasonable claims?' The first claims of a people who wish to have their grievances redressed, are always reasonable; but contemptuous rejection aggravates the evil; and, when they revert to petitioning, they are apt to run into extravagance, and learn to insult and to threaten in their turn. It is thus that trifling commotions swell into rebellion. It was thus that America was, and that Ireland may be, lost. We know not the full extent of the claims, or the number, of the disaffected in Ireland; but, if the strength of the party be not magnified by report, concession of some kind seems necessary. It appears that the catholics expected to be completely emancipated in the administration of earl Fitzwilliam; and we know that they were cruelly disappointed, and have not forgotten their disappointment. These sentiments are discussed by one who seems to have a correct acquaintance with the subject; and the appeal, we hope, will not be lost on the 'sober understandings' of Englishmen.

A Review of the Conduct of the Prince of Wales, from his Entrance into Public Life, till his late Offer to undertake the Government of Ireland. 8vo. 2s. Lee and Hurst. 1797.

The author of this vindication is apparently a flatterer; for he endeavours to prove, that, of all the accusations brought against the prince, there is not a single quality which would make a *man* contemptible or a *king* dangerous. He can see, in this exalted character, no hypocrisy, no circumvention, no avarice, no hardness of heart, no arrogance, no seeds of tyranny, no illiberal and fordid vice; not one fault but which might be found in the characters of men who are brave, honourable, sincere, tender, generous, just, magnanimous. Of the charges adduced, each, he thinks, might have been made against princes who were the fathers of their people and the delight of the world.

All this, when proved, certainly amounts to a complete vindication; but there are many who will question the general authority of this reviewer, and who, in particular, will differ from him on the subject of a domestic disagreement. He affects to speak with extraordinary delicacy and reserve on this topic, while he advances, indirectly indeed, a series of accusations for which there is no proof

but his assertion, which is merely that of an anonymous writer. In the case of the prince, we might say, we had the names of his accusers. *Miles* we know, and *Pigot* we know; 'but who art thou?'

The vindicator writes with spirit; and the pamphlet will highly gratify the friends of that prince whom it presents in so great a variety of agreeable points of view.

Thoughts on Mr. Fox's Secession for six Months, and Return for a Day. By a Suffolk Freeholder. 8vo. 1s. Bickerstaff. 1798.

The secession is a measure which has been censured with great severity, and vindicated with some degree of skill, though perhaps not sufficient to demonstrate the propriety of such a step at the present crisis. It may yet be doubted by the well-wishers of Mr. Fox, whether the total absence of his talents has not had, in one respect, all the effect of consent, because it leaves the arguments of his opponents unanswered. On the other hand, it is impossible not to feel for men whose counsels, in all human probability, would have averted the horrors of a calamitous war. But, in whatever way this question may be viewed, we should not propose to call in the abilities of the author of this pamphlet. When party writers are at a loss to magnify the virtues and success of their patrons, they may think the cause as well promoted by heaping abuse upon their opponents; but we do not envy the head or the heart of that man who can calmly declare, or affect to believe, that 'Mr. Fox deserted his post, because he despaired of doing mischief, and returned to it because he hoped to inflame a clamour against a mode of taxation essential to the carrying on of this just and necessary war.'—The fact is, that Mr. Fox and his seceding friends can never be forgiven for having endeavoured, by their retreat, to throw a decisive odium upon the prevailing party.

An Essay upon Public Credit: being an Enquiry how the public Credit comes to depend upon the Change of the Ministry, or the Dissolutions of Parliaments; and whether it does so or no? By Robert Harley, Esq. afterwards Earl of Oxford, and Lord High Treasurer of Great Britain; first printed, 1710. With short historical Notes, explaining the difficult Passages. 8vo. 1s. Baynes. 1797.

No parts of this essay require explanation to a person acquainted with the history of the reign of queen Anne; nor is there much in it that is applicable to the present times, if we except the passage, which was the cause of its republication, and which was quoted by the marquis of Lansdowne in a late debate. This passage is to the following purport:

'Credit is a consequence, not a cause—the effect of a substance, not a substance; 'tis the sunshine, not the sun; the quickening something, call it what you will, that gives life to trade, gives being to the branches, and moisture to the root; it is the oil of the wheel, the marrow in the bones, the blood in the veins, and the spirits in the heart of all the trade, cash, and commerce in the world.'

‘ It is produced, and grows insensibly, from fair and upright dealing, punctual compliance, honourable performance of contracts and covenants—in short, it is the offspring of universal probity.

‘ It is apparent, even by its nature, it is no way dependent upon persons, parliaments, or any particular men, or set of men, as such, in the world; but upon their conduct, and just behaviour. Credit never was chained to men’s names, but to their actions; not to families, clans, or collections of men, no, not to nations; it is the honour, the justice, the fair-dealing, and the equal conduct of men, bodies of men, nations, and people, that raise the thing called credit among them; wheresoever this is found, credit will live and thrive, grow and increase; where this is wanting, let all the power and wit of man join together, they can neither give her being, or preserve her life.

‘ Arts have been tried on various occasions in the world to raise credit: art has been found able with more ease to destroy credit than to raise it. The force of art, assisted by the punctual, fair, and just dealing above said, may have done much to form a credit upon the face of things: but we find still the honour would have done it without the art, but never the art without the honour: nor will money itself, which, Solomon says, answers all things, purchase this thing called credit, or restore it when lost.’ P. 12.

A comprehensive View of some existing Cases of probable Misapplication, in the Distribution of contingent Allowances, particularly in the Militia of Great Britain; shewing the Wisdom and Propriety of a more general Consolidation than has hitherto taken place: and containing three different Estimates of Clothing for a Militia Regiment, with occasional Remarks upon the ruinous, unjust and unproductive System of nett Off-reckonings in the Army. To which are added, cursory Observations on the Monopoly of Regimental Appointments, the Absurdity of granting additional Companies and second Field Officers before the original Establishment is completed, and the Necessity of distinguishing civil from military Duties, &c.—With a Glance at the late Increase of Pay, and the Remission of Arrears to Subalterns only. Addressed to Francis Earl of Moira. By Charles James. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton. 1797.

The subjects discussed in this pamphlet are of great importance to the militia of the kingdom; but, to render the remarks generally useful, or even to draw attention to them, the writer ought to have compressed his matter into a moderate compass. Ten pages might have contained all that is valuable in this tedious and desultory letter, written (as the author *elegantly* observes) *off-hand*, and ‘under circumstances of peculiar hurry.’ Under such circumstances we did not expect so prolix a composition.

The Correspondence of the Rev. C. Wyvill with the Right Honourable William Pitt. Part II. Published by Mr. Wyvill. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

Our readers will find an account of the first part of this correspondence in our review for December, 1796. The second part

contains, 1. Heads of a Bill, or Bills, for amending the Representation, communicated by Mr. Pitt to Mr. Wyvill, about March, 1785: 2. An Epistle from the former to the latter: 3. Sketch of a Preamble to the Bill: 4. Corrected Clauses, communicated probably in April 1785, by Mr. Wyvill to Mr. Pitt: 5, 6. More corrected Clauses.

From these papers, the public can be at no loss to decide on the consistency of the minister, with regard to parliamentary reform. With submission, however, to Mr. Wyvill, we cannot but suggest that Mr. Pitt has not wholly abandoned the good cause. He has never ceased to *demonstrate* how *necessary* a reform of parliament is; and, with us, *practice* is far better than *theory*.

The Free-Man's Vade-Mecum; or, an intended Oration on Liberty: including several Subjects which are intimately connected therewith, on Matters Civil, Ecclesiastical, and Military. With a Dedication to every Englishman who loves his Country. By Philoleutheros, a Pioneer in the Army of Reason. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1798.

This oration includes most of the topics of political reformation which have been lately agitated between ministerial writers and their opponents. The author is one of those who are dissatisfied with existing circumstances; and he urges his censures and his schemes of improvement with plausibility. If he advances nothing new, he has at least given the substance of many of those regulations, which must at one time or other be adopted, in order to stem the torrent of corruption, and restore the purity of the British constitution. He humbly calls himself a *pioneer* in the army of reason; and his style and manner may be thought to disqualify him for a higher rank.

L A W.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of Exchequer, from Michaelmas Term 36 George III. to Trinity Term 37 George III. both inclusive. By Alexander Anstruther, Esq. of Lincoln's-Inn, Barrister at Law. Royal 8vo. Vol. III. Parts I. II. 5s. each. Clarke and Son. 1797.

In a former Review *, we noticed with approbation two volumes of these Reports. In the two parts of the present volume, Mr. Anstruther has continued his labours with accuracy, as to the legal points of which he has reported the discussion and determination. This is unquestionably the *chief*, but in these days of literature perhaps not the *only* duty of a reporter; and we think that, if the style of Mr. Anstruther had been less harsh and jejune, it might still have preserved the advantage of equal perspicuity.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 277.

Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber, in Easter and Trinity Terms 37th George III. 1797. By John Bernard Bosanquet, of Lincoln's-Inn; and Christopher Puller, of the Inner Temple. Folio. Part I. 5s. sewed. Butterworth. 1797.

The Reports of Mr. Henry Blackstone form a valuable addition to that species of legal publication; and the professors of the law regret that they have not been continued beyond two volumes: the gentlemen who have thus undertaken regularly to report the decisions in the court of common pleas, are (if we are rightly informed) young in the profession; but it is no more than justice to remark, that, from the present specimen they do not appear to have falsely estimated their competency for the undertaking, and that, with the aid of a little experience, they will be able to follow their predecessors *passibus æquis*.

An Essay on the Law of Usury. By Mark Ord, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Brooke. 1797.

In our Review for May 1797, we had occasion to notice a copious treatise on the subject of usury, published by Mr. Plowden. That production was historically comprehensive and entertaining; and it also appeared to us correct and ample in the detail of legal information which the writer professed to convey. The present work is less copious; but it will prove useful to the practising lawyer, as containing the principal points and references necessary to assist him in his researches. It is more correctly printed than many books of the kind; and the authorities from the Reports, &c. are accurately cited.

MEDICINE, &c.

An Essay on Burns, principally upon those which happen to Workmen in Mines from the Explosions of Inflammable Air, (or Hydrogen Gas.) Containing a View of the Opinions of antient and modern Authors upon the Subject of Burns, and a Variety of Cases conducted upon different Principles: from which an Attempt is made to rescue this Part of the Healing Art from Empiricism, and to reduce it to the Laws of the Animal Economy. By Edward Kentish, Surgeon. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Sewed. Robinsons. 1797.

In a well-written address to the proprietors of the collieries upon the river Tyne, Mr. Kentish observes, that, during a period of more than six hundred years in which the coal-trade has flourished, not a single remark upon the subject of his work has been preserved on record. This sufficiently shows in what a state of neglect so important a part of surgery has remained, and strongly justifies the author's attempts to improve it.

He begins the essay with an explanation of the nature of the gasses which produce those fatal explosions that take place in mines; but, in affording a view of this subject, he seems to have gone farther than was necessary. A plain detail of the leading conclusions would have been sufficient, without relating the experiments of Lavoisier and other chemists. The information is, however, just, and in many respects useful.

He next examines, at considerable length, the opinions and modes of practice that have been inculcated by the ancients and moderns. The different writers, he asserts, have disseminated opposite doctrines and contradictory modes of practices; and nothing has hitherto been done on any fixed or solid principles.

The observations which he makes on what he terms the first mode of practice, or that which he found generally pursued in cases of burns from the explosion of airs, are in general pertinent; and the absurdity of the views with which many of the applications were made, is well illustrated, and enforced by examples.

On the second mode of treatment, we meet with reflections that are equally interesting and important. After remarking that the opinions of writers are only consistent with respect to the internal plan of practice, which was debilitating, the writer shows the pernicious tendency of proceeding by debilitating remedies, and the advantages of a stimulating internal one, when not carried too far, or continued too long. Here likewise we have cases in illustration of the reasonings that are employed.

The third mode of treatment is copiously discussed. Having acknowledged some errors into which he at first fell, he informs us, that the termination of bad cases in mortification, by the first mode of practice, changed his opinion in some particulars; and judicious principles are laid down by him as the basis of successful practice; but, for these, we refer to the work itself.

In an Appendix he makes some just remarks on the application of vinegar and chalk, as recommended by Mr. Cleghorn for the cure of burns.

This essay is an ingenious attempt to fix the treatment of burns upon just and philosophical principles; and the author has perhaps gone as far as facts at present would admit. Much, however, is still to be done; and Mr. Kentish, we hope, will not neglect those opportunities which may soon occur to him. It may not be improper to add, that he has rendered his ideas and opinions, in some measure, less intelligible, by blending them too much with those of other writers.

A Practical Essay on the Club-Foot, and other Distortions in the Legs and Feet of Children, intended to shew under what Circumstances they are curable, or otherwise. By T. Sheldrake. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1798.

Mr. Sheldrake produces the testimony of many respectable practitioners of medicine to prove, that he has, by means of his bandages, cured several cases of very badly deformed feet and incurvated limbs. He insists on the cure of the former (the club-foot) being attempted as soon after birth as possible; for if the attempt to correct the deformity be deferred, the strength of the muscles will increase; they will become confirmed in their faulty action; the pressure made in walking will aggravate the distortion; and the bones will at length be rigidly ossified and mis-shapen. Yet, even under these circumstances, considerable benefit may be obtained from the use of bandages. Those which are employed by Mr. Sheldrake are elastic. The limb is brought into a right position by

means of a spring, and many different springs are used in the course of the cure, so that the force employed is always adapted to the feelings of the patient and the exigency of the case.

A new System of Physiology, comprehending the Laws by which animated Beings in general, and the Human Species in particular, are governed, in their several States of Health and Disease. By Richard Saumarez, Surgeon to the Magdalen Hospital. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.

Lest any of our readers, upon perusing the title of this work, should suppose that it treated merely of the physiology of the animal body, we shall copy the Table of Contents of the first volume, to show the diversity of subjects which it comprehends, and to point out the paths by which the author arrives at his ultimate object, the physiology of the human body.

‘ On the general Properties of Common, of Living, and of Dead Matter.—On the particular Properties of Living and Dead Matter.—Of Common Matter.—Of the Materialists.—Of the Oxygenous Philosophers.—Of the Brunonian System.—Of Dr. Darwin’s Doctrine.—The Procession of Living Beings.—Final Cause of Vegetable Existence.—Final Cause of Brutal Existence.—The Sentient Principle is not the same as the Living.—The final Cause of Human Existence.—Of the Means by which the final Cause of Human Existence is attained.—Of the College of Physicians.—Of the Corporation of Surgeons.—Of the Means by which Individuals attain the final Cause of their Existence.—The Relation Man bears to the Deity.—The Relation of Deity to Man.—Of the anatomical Structure of the vegetable System.—Of the Decomposition and Death of the vegetable System.—Of vegetable Temperature.—Of the Mode of Propagation in different animal Systems, from the more simple to the more complicated.—Of the Mode of Generation of the Kangaroo.—On the proximate Cause of Œstrum.—Of Propagation in the Human Species.—Of Menstruation.—Of the Testes, or generating Organs of the Male.’

Mr. Saumarez reasons in a different manner from that which is usually deemed the best: instead of collecting, arranging, and comparing effects, in order to investigate their causes, he first finds out the cause, and then traces its agency through the various effects which it produces. But it may naturally be asked, how is he able so promptly to discover the causes of things? By certain self-evident truths, he would reply. Thus, having determined in his own mind, that common matter is passive, and living matter active, he at once embraces Mr. Hunter’s opinion of the *materia vitæ*, and carries his ideas of its powers to a greater extent than that celebrated physiologist. The whole of the work is strongly tinged with such notions, and modes of reasoning; and the author seems to have read and thought upon most subjects, connected with the physiology of the animal body, without that profundity which would render it necessary for us to give an abstract of his opinions. We are induced to add, that, where he treats of what appears to us the principal subject, he gives a very imperfect account of the present state of physiology.

NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

A Short History of Insects, (extracted from Works of Credit) designed as an Introduction to the Study of that Branch of Natural History, and as a Pocket Companion to those who visit the Leverian Museum. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. White. 1797.

We have been highly pleased with this little manual, which describes each order and genus of insects, and gives a short account of the manners, food, &c. of some of the more remarkable species. The plates, in execution, excel those of similar publications. The arrangement is that of Linnæus.

Elements of Chemistry, and Natural History. To which is prefixed the Philosophy of Chemistry. By A. F. Fourcroy. Translated from the Fourth and last Edition of the original French Work, by R. Heron. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray and Highley.

It is sufficient to announce this translation from the fourth edition of Fourcroy. The fourth chiefly differs from the third * in being more explicit: it is very slightly enlarged, and not materially altered; for, in that, the new theory was adopted. The translator's style is improved; and, on the whole, the present edition merits our regard.

Vocabulary and Tables of the Old and New Nomenclatures of the Names of all the Subjects of Chemical Science: the Old Nomenclature being that which was employed by Chemists in general, before the Discoveries of the late M. Lavoisier: the New Nomenclature being that which was invented by the joint Labours of Messrs. de Morveau, Lavoisier, Berthollet, and Fourcroy, in 1787. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Murray and Highley.

These tables and the vocabulary are well known to modern chemists, and make a part of Mr. Heron's translation of Fourcroy's fourth edition. The 'Discourse on Modern Chemistry,' which precedes, included also in Mr. Heron's publication, is a slight elementary treatise, adapted to the use of learners,

RELIGION.

Remarks on Revelation and Infidelity: being the Substance of several Speeches lately delivered in a private Literary Society in Edinburgh: with Anecdotes of Two of the Members; and an Appendix, containing Two Letters which have since passed between them. By A. M. Secretary. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Vernor and Hood. 1797.

* That we should have our seminaries of learning contaminated by insolent foreigners, as mentioned in your letter; that we should have our youth perverted; our mode of education traduced; and our religion and laws calumniated, by exotics, totally unacquainted with them, and of whom we know nothing, — is, if possible, still more intolerable. Men have certainly a right to think of the government and policy of foreign states as they please; but no man

* The second edition was translated by Mr. Nicholson; and a volume was published in 1789, containing the additions of the third.

can be at liberty, while under the protection of any state, to contribute to its overthrow, or to render its subjects dissatisfied with their religion and laws; not merely because he can probably be no good judge of either, but because such conduct is morally and fundamentally wrong.' P. 344.

What would this debater have said of the early Christians, who undertook long and dangerous peregrinations, to render people dissatisfied with their opinions, and to exhort them to a change? We were sorry to find such an instance of illiberality in the work before us; and it also gave us some displeasure to observe the anonymous writer alluding to the academical conduct of an unfortunate man, condemned by Scottish law to live in New South Wales. We have every reason to believe that the insinuation is unfounded. The plan of the work is to give the remarks in the form of speeches at a debating club in Scotland; and the matter in general is superior to the manner: but, after the excellent apology of the bishop of Llandaff, we cannot recommend this production to our readers on either side of the Tweed.

A Sermon, preached in the Church of St. John Baptist, Wakefield, December 19th, 1797, on Occasion of a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God for the many signal and important Victories, which his Divine Providence hath vouchsafed to his Majesty's Fleets in the Course of the present War. By the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D.D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.

A political rhapsody!—A late illiberal poem is more frequently quoted than the Bible; and, from the warm attachment of this preacher to the anonymous satirist, we were not surprised at the following and similar language. 'Him I pronounce a traitor to his country.' We must inform the preacher that the pulpit is not the place for his denunciations. 'That country which (if it has a fault) is too good for the grumbling hive that battens on its generous soil, and nestles with its stings in its nurturing bosom.' This style does not become the preacher of righteousness.

Deliverance from Enemies, a Ground for Thanksgiving. A Sermon, preached on the Day of general Thanksgiving, December 19th, 1797, in the Chapel of the Asylum for Female Orphans, by William Agutter, A. M. &c. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.

The best sentiment in this discourse, which does credit to its author, deserves at all times, but more particularly at the present crisis, the serious attention of the public.

'Our blessed Saviour has taught us to love our enemies; to forgive those who have injured us, to be ready to make every overture for the sake of peace. They who are the first to seek for reconciliation, have generally most goodness as well as justice on their side. Our enemies may curse, but we must bless. Although our overtures of peace have been perversely misrepresented, and obstinately refused, yet whenever a prospect of reconciliation shall open, it never can be beneath a great and Christian nation to come forward again, to forget the indignities which are past, and to be more ready to be reconciled, than to retaliate injuries.' P. 15.

An Apology for Human Nature. By the late reverend and learned Charles Bulkley. With a prefatory Address to William Wilberforce, Esq. by John Evans, A. M. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.

Of the two systems which contend for superiority in the moral world, one supposes, that man is by nature a detestable being in the sight of God; the other, that he makes himself so by his habits and vices. The former leads to the establishment of an omnipotent evil principle in the world; and, when rectified by the purer notions of the gospel, it still leaves its adherents attached to a very gloomy set of principles; or, if they are released by what they call the new birth, it permits them to give way to all the raptures of enthusiasm. The latter seems more favourable to the perfection of a human being in every virtue, as it excites him to shut up the avenues to vice, and to cultivate those talents which will make him more acceptable in the eyes of his creator. This work follows the latter system; in favour of which, the author argues with piety and strength of reasoning. Indeed, the very title seems to carry conviction on his side of the question. An apology for human nature is a defence of men for being born, or a defence of God for producing such a being as man.

The address to Mr. Wilberforce is very respectful; and, if it should not produce the desired effect, the writer has at least afforded some gratification to the serious part of the public, in thus bringing forward these valuable remains of his pious and excellent friend.

England's Privileges: a Thanksgiving Sermon, preached in the Diocese of Hereford, on Tuesday, December 19, 1797. By the Rev. D. Lloyd, &c. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1797.

We cannot speak, in terms of praise, either of the sense or the language of this discourse.

EDUCATION.

The Improvement of Time for the Instruction of Children. 8vo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1797.

Truth and Filial Love. A Little Drama. In three Acts. 8vo. 1s. Lee and Hurst. 1797.

These little productions belong to that useful class of writings for the entertainment and instruction of children, to which some of the most esteemed writers in our nation have not disdained to make additions. We have no objection to offer to these two productions, except that, in the first, the character of the late king of Sweden would better have been omitted, as political characters of recent times are out of place in books intended for children.

POETRY.

The Hurricane: a Theosophical and Western Eclogue. To which is subjoined, a Solitary Effusion in a Summer's Evening. By William Gilbert. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Crosby.

We have never had occasion to notice a more extraordinary

work than the present. The *theosophy* of the eclogue we do not perfectly comprehend; nor should we have discovered that 'more is meant than meets the ear,' were not this mystical meaning earnestly enforced in the notes. The author seems deeply convinced of the importance of his opinions.

'To the world I give them' (he says); 'I must give them; for each claims his own, and the derived progeny as eagerly converses the claim. To try to with-hold them would be vain, and it would be pufillanimous, thievish, and tyrannical: and to exclude an individual from a free choice of receiving the fruit of my elaboration, would be murder. Therefore, I pour out and drain the phial on the air and to the four winds of heaven; and I do it most fearlessly.' p. 102.

Mr. Gilbert will not be surprised if we forbear to comment on his extensive notes: he says himself —

'I AM NOT UNDERSTOOD. 'Tis well.

I UNDERSTAND MYSELF. It is better.' p. 92.

The subject of the poem is the preservation of a female from shipwreck, who remains in the vessel after the crew and the other passengers have left it for their boats, and perished. The vessel is driven up a creek, and safely stranded.

'No hand remained. The tempest was her pilot,
And the mighty arm that winged the ruin.' p. 26.

Elmira, who has slept through the storm, now awakes, and finds herself in safety. Here we have a beautiful comparison:

'So infant spirits,
Who wing their animating flight of death
In pleasing slumbers from their mothers' arms,
Alight unknowing on celestial ground.' p. 29.

The poet meets her, and the conversation between them is oddly distinguished as a dramatic dialogue between Elmira and I. This is the whole subject, and the doctrine inferred from it seems to be the torpid resignation of Turkish fatalism.

The author's metre is as eccentric as his theosophy. As a specimen, we extract his description of the storm:

'Just where the horizon bends to meet the wave,
Within the farthest reach of human ken,
A sail appeared. The mild ray far beaming
From the western sun glanced on her canvas,
And beheld it spread before the rising breeze.
The rising breeze far from the northward moved,
Ruffling along, and blackened as it came.
The affrighted plover from its blast retired;
The lizard nestled in the watchman's hut,
And heavy, awful, gloom poured deepening on,
Soon reigning darkness o'er creation drew
The deep-black curtain of involving night:
The tempest thickened; and the dark wind howled
Encreasing horrors and sublimer blasts

Heavy the deep-hung atmosphere along.
 Retired as soon as straws around me felt
 The wind, I, hence, enjoyed in silent peace
 The rending gale. But ever and anon,
 Some crash of trees or noise of swift destruction
 Met my ear. Soon the expected signals of
 Distress roll through the heavy storm: the wind
 Almost suppressed the deep-mouthed sound it bore.
 Reiterate at rapid intervals,
 The guns were heard, and oft times joined the thunder.
 The firing ceased. The aggravated storm rode
 Wide and unrivalled through the midnight air.
 All else was silence.'

Poems on interesting Events in the Reign of King Edward III. written in the Year MCCCCLII. By Laurence Minot. With a Preface, Dissertations, Notes, and a Glossary. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Egerton.

This old author was rescued from obscurity by a remarkable circumstance. Some former possessor of the manuscript in which his poems are contained had written his name, Richard Chawser, on one of the supernumerary leaves. The compiler of the Cotton catalogue, printed at Oxford in 1696, converted this signature into Geoffrey Chaucer, and therefore described the volume in these words: CHAUCER. *Exemplar emendatè scriptum.* Mr. Tyrwhitt, whilst he was preparing his edition of the Canterbury Tales, consulted this manuscript, and discovered the poems of Laurence Minot; a person whose name appears to have been totally forgotten.

The versification of this poet is uncommonly easy and harmonious for the period in which he lived, and an alliteration, as studied as that of Pierce Plowman, runs through all his varieties of metre. He has not the dull prolixity of many early authors; nor do we find in his remains those pictures of ancient times and manners, from which early writers derive their greatest value. In the easy flow of his language, he certainly equals Chaucer; but here the merit of Laurence Minot ends.

We subjoin a short extract.

' War this winter oway,
 Wele wald i wene
 That fomer fuld schew him
 In schawes ful schene;
 Both the lely and the lipard
 Suld geder on a grene.
 Mari, have minde of thi man,
 Thou whote wham i mene;
 Lady, think what i mene,
 I mak thee my mone;
 Thou wreke gude king Edward
 On wikked syr John.

' Of Gynes ful gladly
 Now will i bigin,

We wote wele that woning
 Was wikked for to win :
 Crist, that swelt on the rode,
 For sake of mans syn,
 Hald tham in gude hele
 That now er tharein !
 Inglis-men er tharein,
 The kastell to kepe ;
 And John of France es so wroth
 For wo will he wepe.' P. 48.

The notes chiefly consist of extracts from our old chronicles, relating to the events celebrated in the poems: they occupy more than one half of the volume, and are, we think, unnecessarily extended.

Epistle from Lady Grange to Edward D ———, Esq. written during her Confinement in the Island of St. Kilda. 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

A more interesting story than that of lady Grange can scarcely be found in the annals of romance. The genius of this writer, however, is not adequate to the subject. The lines descriptive of St. Kilda are merely descriptive, without that mixture of feeling which should give them the appearance of dramatic nature: and the satire is altogether misplaced. But the author is certainly not without talents; and his versification is harmonious and spirited.

' While struggling pangs this tortured bosom rend,
 The bliss by heaven denied, Despair shall lend.
 Within this lonely cell, this desert cave,
 Again I taste the freedom Nature gave.
 From splendid cares and toilsome grandeur driv'n,
 I share the sullen dignity of heav'n.
 When the gay sun his youthful journey ran,
 Ere man had learn'd to be the slave of man,
 No cruel father's avaricious rage
 Bade blooming Beauty link with withering Age.
 "Go—meet thy tottering husband's cold embrace,
 While the tear trickles down that lovely face.
 Go—act the loving matron's tender part,
 Then dream of the fond youth who own'd thy heart.
 Though murder'd Love on every joy must steal,
 Go—feign the transport thou canst never feel;
 Go—vex the midnight couch with many a sigh,
 For crimson folds shall shroud thy misery;
 Go—yield thy soul to frenzy,—to despair,—
 For wealth, that cannot ease, shall gild thy care.
 So shall no pang my parting soul annoy,
 But thy old father's heart shall dance with joy." P. 8.

A striking incident in the story is not noticed by this author: we allude to the lady's constant employment of securing letters from the effects of water, and throwing them into the sea, in the hope that they might reach some friendly hand.

Effusions of Fancy. 12mo. 2s. Richardson. 1798.

In this collection we find little that deserves either praise or censure. We select the sonnet to Commerce, as one that will favourably display the author's talents; and we may observe that his sentiments are always unexceptionable.

' Commerce! gain-grasping power, my dubious heart
Knows not if thou deserve'st praise or blame,
Whether the blessing of the world thou art,
Or civilized man's unceasing shame.
Could thy wide arms unite all human kind,
In one firm compact of fraternal love,
For thee the muse her richest wreaths should bind,
For thee her strains in sweetest measures move:
But if thy vot'ries in the gloomy den
Of trade immur'd are callous to distress,
Or if thy hard hands forge for fellow-men
The chains of slavery and of wretchedness,
Still shall she execrate the power that gave
Wealth to the tyrant, misery to the slave.' P. 25.

The writer has improperly entitled his pieces *Effusions of Fancy*; for we scarcely perceive any traits of poetical imagination.

Walter and William, an Historical Ballad; translated from the original Poem, of Richard Cœur de Lion. 8vo. 2s. Boosey. 1797.

The internal evidence of this poem seems to prove it to be modern. Richard the First would not have moralised upon

' what's entail'd
On war's pernicious trade.' P. 12.

The following stanzas are palpably borrowed from the *Lenore* of Bürger.

" Haste! haste! clasp on thy shining arms,
Besetride thy sable steed;
Come on! come on!—ere morning's dawn
The murderer shall bleed.

" My snorting courser paws the ground,
He will not—cannot stay;
We've far to ride—the night is short,
To vengeance haste away."

" To vengeance, William!—why so late?
Remain till dawn with me."

" Walter, the deed was dark as hell,
As dark shall vengeance be.

" My snorting courser paws the ground,
He will not—cannot stay;
We've far to ride—the night is short,
To vengeance haste away." P. 19.

If this quotation were not sufficient proof, the shallow and angry arguments in the Preface justify us in what this writer calls 'scorning him down as an imitator, or a plagiarist.'

The Trap: a Poem. By a Lady. 4to. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1797.

‘ A little great man,
Whose life’s but a span,
To a carpenter went,
In the middle of Lent,
And bid him prepare
A trap to ensnare
A widow and son,
To occasion some fun
To the carpenter’s wife and her cronies.’ p. 9.

This specimen of the poem will suffice.

The Age of Folly: a Poem. 4to. 2s. Clarke. 1797.

This *Age of Folly* is one of the *foolish* productions of the *age*. Some of the lines are tolerable, and some are wretched, as our specimen will show.

‘ Sad times, I ween, when bishops learn to box !
In spite of Paul’s epistle—orthodox ;
Who writes, that he who holds th’ important trust,
Should riots shun, be diligent, and just :
No striker—wrangler—nor given to wine—
Nor after heaps of filthy lucre pine.
But we’ll suppose the bishop oft’ had read,
“ Fight the good fight,”—and you have nought to dread ;
So finding that his limbs were strong and stout,
His reverence fairly—fought the battle out !’ p. 13.

DRAMA.

Secrets Worth Knowing; a Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Thomas Morton, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Longman. 1798.

A concealed will and a concealed marriage are the chief incidents in the plot of this comedy. The distress ceases when the marriage is avowed. The humorous part partakes too much of the nature of broad farce; and we scarcely recollect a character more completely unlike any thing in nature than Rostrum the auctioneer. We select a specimen of this character.

‘ Enter Rostrum.

‘ *Ros.* There she stands.

‘ *Ros.* (*sings*) “ Deel take the wars, that hurried Willie from me.”

‘ *Ros.* Who the devil is Willie—I feel very awkward. (*aside.*) How do you do ma’am?

‘ *Ros.* Now for a specimen of a modern lover.

‘ *Ros.* I hear, ma’am, you have a charming estate.

‘ *Rose*. A modern lover indeed—which estate, in my opinion, sir, you value above it’s merits.

‘ *Ros*. I beg your pardon, ma’am—no—when I am call’d in to value an estate, I——

‘ *Rose*. Sir! ——

‘ *Ros*. Zounds! no, ma’am; what I wish to speak of is quite another article, I mean quite another lot—I mean quite another affair—’tis not the fine estate in Worcestershire; but, (*blushing*.) but the holy estate of matrimony, ma’am.

‘ *Rose*. Well sir, what of it?—pray speak?

‘ *Ros*. (*aside*.) I am tongue-tied—’tis damned hard, I can only preach in my own pulpit.

‘ *Rose*. What did you say, sir?

‘ *Ros*. I said ma’am, that—I’ll try my uncle’s way. (*nods to her*.) You understand?

‘ *Rose*. Indeed I do not.

‘ *Ros*. Nor I neither. (*aside*.)—Ma’am!

‘ *Rose*. Sir!

‘ *Ros*. I say—(*aside*.) I have it—I’ll pour forth a torrent of eloquence.—Oh! miss, believe me, I despise riches—ah! how blessed should I be to live with you in a retired and peaceful cottage; situate in a delightful sporting country, with attached and detached offices, roomy cellaring, and commodious attics.

‘ *Rose*. Sir!

‘ *Ros*. Together would we inhale the vernal breeze in an acre and a half of garden ground, crammed with esculents and choice fruit trees—well stocked and cropped.

‘ *Rose*. The poor man is mad.

‘ *Ros*. With content smiling round us. I would not languish for town enjoyments—no—tho’ situated only an agreeable distance from the turnpike road, with the accommodation of a stage coach passing daily to London.

‘ *Rose*. But sir, I hate a cottage—and when I marry ——

‘ *Ros*. The premises may be viewed with tickets, and immediate possession had.

‘ *Rose*. Quite—quite mad.—

‘ *Ros*. Well, miss—after all that, don’t you love me?

‘ *Rose*. No—(*sings*.)

“The pride of all nature was sweet Willie O!”

‘ *Ros*. Damn Willie—my name is Tom.’ P. 38.

This piece, like most modern comedies, will be represented for a season, and then consigned to oblivion.

Blue Beard; or, Female Curiosity! a Dramatick Romance. Written by George Colman, the Younger. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

To supply the place of harlequinade by an entertainment which admits the pomp of pantomimic spectacle without its buffoonery, and heightens its effects by dramatic dialogue, was certainly a commendable attempt; and for this purpose Mr. Colman judiciously made choice of a popular story. In the character of Abomelique, we recognise Blue-Beard, the old acquaintance of our childhood.

The dialogue is amusing; and it aspires to nothing more. A short specimen of the humorous part will suffice; it is the kind of wit which is obvious to every one, and with which therefore all are in some degree pleased.

'*Ibrahim*. Mercy on me!—I quake in my cloaths like a cold jelly in a bag! They are battering the castle to pieces. I am the unluckiest Mussulman in all Turkey! Here's a building that has stood wind and weather this age, and the moment I pop my nose into it, it begins tumbling about my ears.— [Shouts.

'*A cry of* TO ARMS! TO ARMS!

To arms! O, dear!—I had much rather to legs, if I knew which way to escape. Now I shall be expected to put myself in the front of the ranks, because I am *Major Domo*;—but, if I do, I'll give them leave to mince the *Major Domo* for his son-in-law's supper, (ALARUM).

'*Enter* 1st. SLAVE.

'O Mahomet! what's that?

'1st. Slave. An enemy is on the walls.

'*Ibra*. Then, you cowardly rascal, do you go and knock him into the ditch.

'1st. Slave. We wait for you. You are appointed our leader—There is no discipline without you.—We want a head.

'*Ibra*. Do you?—So shall I, if I go with you.—Get on before—Tell 'em to fight like fury;—and I'll be with them, to reward their valour, when it's all over.—Run that way, that leads into the action.

'1st. Slave. I will.

[Exit Slave.

'*Ibra*. And I'll run this way, that leads out of it.

[Exit.

'(Shouts, Alarum, &c.)' P. 49.

NOVELS, &c.

The History of Sir George Warrington; or, The Political Quixote.
By the Author of the *Female Quixote*. 3 Vols. 12mo, 10s. 6d.
Sewed. Bell. 1797.

The hero of this novel is introduced to the reader's acquaintance in the following terms.

'He was just twenty-one, and, having lost his father about eight months, was in full possession of an unincumbered estate of six thousand pounds a year. His countenance was open, animated, and interesting: his eyes expressive of more good sense than his tongue had ever yet uttered: his complexion would have been too fair, but that the glow of health, added to the effects of the sun, to which he was constantly exposed, gave it a darker shade; and his features, though not exactly regular, were such as no one could observe without pronouncing him a handsome young man. His air had something in it of natural grace, as his address had of natural courtesy, which it was easily perceived a few months intercourse with the great world would convert into elegance, as, though rustic, he was by no means vulgar; for that politeness

which springs from an innate wish of pleasing, and that dignity which is ever the result of conscious worth and native integrity, require but little artificial polish to render their possessors not merely esteemed but admired.' Vol. i. p. 12.

Sir George is not long on the stage before he has the misfortune to be thrown from his horse, and to break one of his legs. In the melancholy retirement imposed upon him by this accident, he becomes fond of reading; and, among other books which the vicar of the parish puts into his hands, he meets with Paine's Rights of Man, and commences his political Quixotism, by declaring himself a champion for universal liberty and general equality. His zeal, however, is soon allayed by the adventures of a footman, who had contrived to run away with his master's daughter. This young lady is rescued by our hero, and restored to her parents. He afterwards has an interview with a lady of the name of Moreland, who had entered a convent in France, and was obliged to leave that country in consequence of the revolution. On coming to England she found herself without the means of subsistence. Our Quixote is charmed with her person and address, and puts her under the protection of persons of honour and integrity. In short, after various peregrinations and adventures, he is convinced of the folly of his principles, and of the impossibility of his being able to do much good. He therefore closes his wanderings, and marries Louisa Moreland.

In these volumes we do not find any thing that can deprave the understanding, or corrupt the heart; and it is proper to add, that there are some happy delineations of character, and just remarks on the manners and principles of the present age. We refer particularly to our author's account of the Kettering family—the Thorntons—Miss Carruther, and Louisa Moreland. The short sketch of Mrs. Wilmot, with which we shall close this article, is not ill executed.

'Mrs. Wilmot was a woman of a very peculiar kind: she had no character at all: though this assertion of mine is in direct opposition to that line of Pope which declares it to be the fate of most women: but this I deny; nor will any of my readers contradict me. Let them recollect whether, among their own acquaintance, the generality of the fair sex do not belong to some of the following classes: the gay, the witty, the learned, the pedantic, the reserved, the capricious, the extravagant, the covetous, the vain, the haughty, the humble, or the fantastic. But Mrs. Wilmot had a claim to none of these characteristics: she was equally free from virtues and from vices; the most extreme and unconquerable indolence was the only prominent feature of her mind. However, as, by a sort of mechanical management, without much exertion, she contrived to preside in the family and to regulate it without extravagance, Mr. Wilmot was very well contented. He knew she did not save so much as the wives of some of his acquaintance, but then he was well assured she did not spend; and, on an average, he thought himself more fortunate than many of his friends whose ladies decorated their own persons with what they spared from the house and table. But the most unpardonable

effect of her negligence was, the little pains she took to adorn her daughters and set them forward in the world. Unlike all mothers, she never consulted their persons or their appearance in the pattern of a new gown; was never solicitous to chaperon them to public places, or contrive schemes to draw in young men to dance with them; never was anxious to invite gentlemen of fortune to their house, and then entertain them with the superior merit of her children, saying, "what a good wife the eldest would make! and how well she understood the oeconomy of a family! hinting that the Miss Beechcrofts and the Miss Annellys knew nothing but the fashions: that the youngest was such a mild tempered creature, she must never marry unless she met with a man as amiable as herself; and that the second was, in any kind of illness, the best nurse imaginable." Vol. ii. p. 94.

The Rector's Son. By Anne Plumtre, Author of *Antoinette*. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Sewed. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

Those readers who do not regard the probability of a story may derive pleasure from this work. Though we do not consider it as having any great merit, it is not altogether contemptible.

The Rock; or, Alfred and Anna. A Scottish Tale. By a Young Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Sewed. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

This tale is crowded with adventures; the language is frequently inaccurate; and the ideas are sometimes confused. 'The sorrowing angel who enrols the day,' is said to 'dip his pen in blood, in spoil, in desolation!'

Ellinor; or, the World as it is. A Novel. By Mary Ann Hanway. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Lane. 1798.

The story is interesting; and the sentiments are unexceptionable. We sometimes meet with an unpleasant pertness in the style; but it would be well if circulating libraries contained no worse books than *Ellinor*.

Hannah Hewit; or, the Female Crusoe. Being the History of a Woman of uncommon mental, and personal Accomplishments; who, after a variety of extraordinary and interesting Adventures in almost every Station of Life, from splendid Prosperity to abject Adversity, was cast away in the Grosvenor East-Indiaman: and became for three Years the sole Inhabitant of an Island, in the South Seas. Supposed to be written by herself. 3 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Dibdin.

This is a professed imitation of the *Robinson Crusoe* of De-Foe; but it does not exhibit one spark of the genius displayed in that celebrated novel. It affords little amusement, and excites little interest. The adventures are grossly improbable, the dialogue vulgar, and the sentiments trite.

Clara Lennox; or, the Distressed Widow. A Novel. Founded on Facts. Interspersed with an historical Description of the Isle of Man. By Mrs. Lee. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Sewed. Parsons. 1797.

The authoress professes that the intention of this effort is 'to expose the insidious arts of hypocrisy, and the malevolent effects of jealousy, disguised under the semblance of friendship,

and also to illustrate an example of virtue patiently suffering under the most bitter persecution.' And she trusts that 'the whole being drawn from characters in *real life*, will be considered by the candid and indulgent reader, as some apology for the numerous defects of its style and execution.' We are sorry that we cannot admit this apology, because, in a novel, we do not expect characters in *real life*, and because we strongly suspect, that, although the foundation of this novel may be *in fact*, the superstructure is mere fiction. This, however, is no objection to its useful tendency; and it may be read with some advantage as well as with pleasure. But it contains none of those striking delineations of conduct or passion which show an intimate knowledge of the human mind; and the language is often vulgar and ungrammatical.

Moral Tales: consisting of the Reconciliation, a Sketch of the Belvoir Family. A Fairy Tale in the Modern Style. Clementia and Malitia, a Fairy Tale in the Ancient Style. Charles and Maria, a Novel, founded on Fact. The best Heart in the World, a Novel, the Offspring of Fancy. By Joseph Moser, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1797.

In the modern fairy tale, the introduction of the fairy is useless. Mr. Moser mentions 'fays, fairies, and elves,' as different species of airy beings. This is strange ignorance for one who makes use of their agency.

The Siamese Tales: being a Collection of Stories told to the Son of the Mandarin Sam-Sib, for the Purpose of engaging his Mind in the Love of Truth and Virtue. With an Historical Account of the Kingdom of Siam. To which is added the principal Maxims of the Talapoins. Translated from the Siamese. 12mo. 2s. Vernon and Hood. 1797.

These tales are calculated to promote 'the love of virtue through the medium of fiction.' They are sufficiently interesting to attract the attention of youth; and, although they possess none of the splendid imagery of the Arabian tales, their morality is such as cannot be presented in too many shapes.

Interesting Tales, selected and translated from the German. 12mo. 3s. Lane. 1797.

We have some doubts whether these tales were translated from the German; but we are clearly of opinion that they were not worth the trouble of translation.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*Reflections on the Surgeons' Bill: in Answer to three Pamphlets * in Defence of that Bill. By John Ring, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hookham and Carpenter. 1798.*

Mr. Ring criticises the pamphlets published by the advocates

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. pp. 115, 116, 117.

of the court of assistants of the company of surgeons; but, as he is professedly of the opposite party, a perfectly candid examination of those pieces was hardly to be expected. There is, in this book, a very improper degree of personality, which, combined with the author's fondness for playing with words, and even letters, takes away his attention from arguments, and from the subject of consideration. When we spoke of Mr. Ring's playing with letters, we alluded to the following passage relating to Mr. Chevalier, who is a master of arts, and the author of one of the books criticised by Mr. Ring.

'Whether he was really the author of the book, or only fathered the offspring of another, as some suspect to have been the case, he deserves to have the fourth letter of the alphabet added to his degree; and the three letters brought into close conjunction.' It might then be said, that much learning had made him mad.' P. 224.

Such trifling ought not to have been indulged. There are two objects, however, which are properly brought forward to public notice. The business to be transacted by the directors of the company is of a two-fold nature — judicial and scientific; but the latter is most important because it contributes in the greatest degree to the general good.

'It has been proposed, for the examiners and the court of assistants to be a distinct body: which is agreeable to reason, and to the act of parliament; though it may not be agreeable to the wishes of the framers of a corporation. For the able discharge of the duties of an examiner, in which the public interest in the corporation consists, and by which the honour of the corporation must be supported, great abilities are requisite; for saving or spending a few pounds, shillings, and pence, mediocrity of talents may suffice.

'I can see no reason why the court of assistants should not be allowed a compensation for their trouble, as well as the court of examiners: but I would abolish all dinners at the expense of the corporation; which have too much resemblance to the feasts of parish officers, and look too much like embezzlement, to be creditable in a learned society.

'Should the professional and the pecuniary departments be separated, as is here proposed, a place in the court of assistants, or among the auditors, will be no object of ambition; having no tendency to raise its possessor to the rank of an examiner. It will therefore be just and politic, to hold out to those who are elected to such offices, a prospect of reasonable remuneration. It is not natural, nor agreeable to experience, to expect, that any persons will be desirous of bearing the scrip, like Judas, unless they mean, like Judas, to betray.' P. 108.

On the necessity of obliging persons, in every department of medicine, to submit to an examination before they are permitted to practise, Mr. Ring observes:

‘It is but justice to remind our legislators, that there is no law now in force to prevent men or women from practising midwifery without an examination. The college of physicians have, indeed, instituted a new order of practitioners, called licentiates in midwifery. In this order they admit such as voluntarily offer themselves, provided they pass their examination. This ceremony is rather too ridiculous to be passed over without some animadversion. Those who profess the practice, are examined by those who do not.’ P. 174.

An Historical Account of the City of Hereford. With some Remarks on the River Wye, and the Natural and Artificial Beauties contiguous to its Banks, from Brobery to Wilton. Embellished with elegant Views, Plans, &c. By John Price. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Faulder.

The compiler of this work represents himself as a young literary adventurer; and he modestly declares his readiness to pay a proper attention to the sentiments and advice of the periodical reviewers, ‘who generally speak the opinion of the public,’ or rather the opinion which they would wish the public to form. He had before appeared as a topographer, by publishing an account of Leominster*; but the present work is preferable to his former production.

That a considerable town stood near the spot now occupied by Hereford, when the Romans were in possession, not ‘of this island’ (as Mr. Price too comprehensively remarks), but of the greater part of it, we have just reason to believe; but it was in a ruinous state during the earlier part of the heptarchy; and the Saxon town was not built exactly in the same situation. The latter began to flourish after the erection of the bishopric; but it was nearly destroyed by the Welsh in the reign of Edward the Confessor. It was, however, quickly re-built, and well-fortified for that age.

The history of the city is followed by an account of its present state. Mr. Price censures those writers who have represented the situation as unhealthy; describes the place with accuracy; attributes to it 1361 habitable houses, and 6007 inhabitants; and speaks unfavourably of its trade and manufactures, but expects that great benefit will be derived from the canal which is yet unfinished.

The other contents of the volume are, accounts of the bishopric, of the successive occupants of the see, of the churches and various public buildings, of the eminent persons (very few in number) who were born in this city, of the noblemen who derived titles from it, and of the villas and prospects near the Wye. There is also an Appendix, which contains no interesting matter.

This work will please the cultivators of topography; but it will not be equally pleasing to all, as there are many, we believe, who would wish for a more extended account of an ancient episcopal

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XV. p. 356.

city, while others will think the present volume too copious. Our opinion is, that it includes various superfluities; and we would therefore, in case of a new edition, advise the compiler to exercise the arts of retrenchment and compression.

Biographical Curiosities; or, various Pictures of Human Nature, containing original and authentick Memoirs of Daniel Dancer, Esq. an extraordinary Miser, &c. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. 1797.

We can safely recommend this volume, as an agreeable companion for cursory readers. The lives are selected with judgment, and from the best authorities. They do not all convey an equal portion of instruction; but all abound with curious *traits* of human character. The principal lives are those of Daniel Dancer, Jonas Hanway, Elwes, Ludwig, Tycho Brahe, Eugene Aram, Napier, Metcalf, Brindley, and La Fontaine. The life of Dancer, we are informed, is here first published. This man was as great a miser as Elwes; but his meanness is rather more disgusting in detail. Elwes was more fortunate in a biographer.

Gretna Green, or, Cupid's Introduction to the Temple of Hymen; describing many curious Scenes, Love Anecdotes, and Characters, in Prose and Verse: calculated for the Entertainment of both Sexes. By Cupid's Secretary, A. M. 12mo. 6d. Milne. 1798.

We here find some good advice, mingled with a quantity of vulgar trash, fitted perhaps 'for the entertainment of both sexes' at a country fair.

Critical and Poetical Works, by J. Penn, Esq. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Elmsly and Bremner. 1797.

In the critical part of this volume is a translation of Ranieri di Calfabigi's letter to count Alfieri, on tragedy, with notes, in which Mr. Penn again defends his proposed improvements of dramatic writing, and refers to his own 'Battle of Eddington' as an example. The poetical part is chiefly composed of translations. The selection from Petrarch has been judiciously made: it contains an example of every species of writing found in that author; and we could wish to see this plan pursued with regard to other poets. We cannot, however, praise the execution; for the sentences are perplexed, and the poetry is harsh and unpleasant. Of Mr. Penn's original pieces, we may affirm, that they display little genius.

The New Brighton Guide; or, Companion for Young Ladies and Gentlemen to all the Watering-Places in Great Britain. With Notes, Historical, Moral, and Personal. 8vo. 2s. Symonds.

A Looking-Glass for the Royal Family: with Documents for British Ladies, and all Foreigners residing in London. Being a Postscript to the new Brighton Guide. By John Williams, whose public Appellation is Anthony Pasquin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

These pamphlets are as profligate and as dull as may be expected from Mr. John Williams, alias Anthony Pasquin.

Reflections and Observations on the new Brighton Guide; written by A——y P——n, against her Royal Highness the P—— of W——. By a Lady. 8vo. 1s. Simmonds.

Trifling remarks upon a scurrilous libel.

Oriental Disquisitions: or a Retrospect of the Rise and Progress of the Hydrographical Surveys of Bengal, &c. authenticated by original Letters, interspersed with Remarks upon various Occurrences in that Department of the Service. Most respectfully offered to the Consideration of the Honourable East India Company at large, and to the Public in General. By the Marine Surveyor. 4to. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1797.

The writer of this pamphlet was employed on some important surveys in India, and has rendered essential services to the East-India company. These services, according to his account, have not met with adequate reward; a circumstance which we can easily conceive, as his employers were a body of men continually fluctuating. His last resource is to the *comptoir* in Leadenhall-street. Major Rennel is one of the fittest men to estimate the value of the services; and a representation from him might have its due weight with the committee at the head of this trade: but the style of the pamphlet is not calculated to conciliate friendship.

The writer certainly may blame himself for trusting to the plausible professions of the managers or servants of the company. When these men, who were enriching themselves either by contracts, or by the plunder of the natives of India, refused to pay his demand for the expenses incurred in obedience to their orders, he should have refused to obey farther commands. While he acquiesced, it was natural that they should treat him with neglect.

To the future historian of Bengal these disquisitions will be useful; and they may be consulted with advantage by surveyors in India.

Travels in North America, by M. Cressel. With a Narrative of his Shipwreck and extraordinary Hardships and Sufferings on the Island of Anticosti; and an Account of that Island, and of the Shipwreck of his Majesty's Ship Active, and others. 12mo. 3s. Law. 1797.

The island of Anticosti, very imperfectly described in our common books of geography, is situated at the entrance of the river St. Laurence, between the parallels of 49 deg. 4 min. and 49 deg. 53 min. 15 sec. N. latitude, and the meridians of 61 deg. 58 min. and 64 deg. 35 min. W. longitude from London. Its circumference is 282 statute miles, its length 129 miles, and its breadth from 32 to 12 miles. It contains 1,699,840 acres of indifferent land, which in general is composed of a light-coloured stone, of a soft crumbling nature, mixed in some parts with clay.

The recent shipwreck of the *Active* (on board of which was lord Dorchester) on this island, suggested to the editor, that the public would be glad to receive an account of a spot hitherto so little known, except to those navigators who sail up the St. Laurence; and this, he thought, would form an apology for reviving

the narrative of a transaction which happened at so distant a period of time. M. Crespel was a missionary priest, and was wrecked on this island in his passage homeward. The sufferings of him and his companions by fatigue, famine, and the rigour of the season, were of the most shocking kind, and, to the greater part of the crew, fatal. The narrative is interesting, like others of similar disasters, as exhibiting the strength of mental courage in situations which seem to defy human patience and ingenuity. M. Crespel relates his story with an honest simplicity, which obtains credit without the aid of external vouchers.

Biographical Anecdotes of the Founders of the French Republic, and of other eminent Characters, who have distinguished themselves in the Progress of the Revolution. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.

We can promise to our readers, whatever their political principles may be, considerable amusement and information from this volume, which contains anecdotes of above one hundred and thirty of the most eminent persons who have 'strutted and fretted their day' upon the grand theatre of French politics. The author appears to have taken great pains to collect materials from the best sources; and, although we perceive some inaccuracies and misstatements, we consider them rather as unavoidable than as reprehensible. 'It is impossible to recollect without horror,' (he says, in his Preface) 'that about one half of the persons mentioned in this volume, have fallen victims to political phrenzy under the guillotine;' and this horror is not lessened (we are obliged to confess), if these accounts are true, by reflecting that very few of that number were possessed of virtues which rendered their fate an object of lamentation. Such a series of unprincipled characters probably never appeared before, in so short a space, in the management of the affairs of any nation. Prefixed is a very useful document, entitled, 'A Chart of the Proscriptions of Parties in France, from that of the Brissotines in June, 1793, to that of the Royalists in September, 1797.'

The Quiz. By a Society of Gentlemen. Vol. I. 12mo. 3s. Sewed. Parsons. 1797.

This work is remarkable only for a charge of plagiarism which it brings against Goldsmith. A French ballad is here printed as the original of Edwin and Angelina. The publication from which it is said to have been taken bears this title: "Les deux Habitants de Lozanne, 1606." We know not what credit the assertion deserves, as we have not seen the French work here mentioned; but we are inclined to doubt the circumstance.